

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME XXXVII

FEBRUARY 1929

NUMBER 2

Educational News and Editorial Comment

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO DINNER

The annual dinner of the University of Chicago which occurs during the week of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence will be held at the University Club, 3813 Euclid Avenue, Cleveland, Ohio, Wednesday, February 27, 1929. Tickets may be secured from William S. Gray, University of Chicago, for \$2.00 each. All alumni and former students of the University are cordially invited to attend.

CONGRESSIONAL APPROPRIATION FOR THE STUDY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

The House of Representatives and the Senate have passed as a part of the appropriation bill the following provision.

For all expenses, including personal services in the District of Columbia and elsewhere, purchase and rental of equipment, purchase of supplies, traveling expenses, printing, and all other incidental expenses not included in the foregoing, to enable the Secretary of the Interior, through the Bureau of Education, at a total cost of not to exceed \$225,000, to make a study of the organization, administration, financing, and work of secondary schools and of their articulation with elementary and higher education, \$50,000: *Provided*, That specialists and experts for temporary service in this investigation may be em-

played at rates to be fixed by the Secretary of the Interior to correspond to those established by the Classification Act of 1923, as amended, and without reference to the Civil Service Act of January 16, 1883.

The plan of expenditure which is contemplated in this action is the use of \$50,000 during the year 1929-30, \$100,000 during the year 1930-31, and \$75,000 during the year 1931-32.

The initiative in recommending this appropriation was taken by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The other regional accrediting associations, the American Council on Education, and the National Education Association at its Minneapolis meeting indorsed the request for the appropriation. John J. Tigert, commissioner of education, and Roy O. West, secretary of the Department of the Interior, were cordial in their support of the request. The committee of the North Central Association which was authorized to bring the matter to the attention of the federal authorities presented the request to the Education Committee of the House of Representatives and later was granted conferences with General Herbert M. Lord, director of the Bureau of the Budget, and the Honorable L. C. Cramton, a member of the Committee on Appropriations of the House of Representatives. At every point the request was received with hospitable attention.

The experience of the committee of the North Central Association makes it perfectly clear that federal support for educational investigations can be secured if it can be shown that investigations of national scope are needed.

There is certainly need for other inquiries which no agency other than the federal government is competent to carry on. Teacher-training in the United States, for example, is in a condition which calls for a broader analysis than can be made by any state department, single institution, or private foundation.

The fact that an appropriation has been made for the investigation of secondary education should show the school people of this country that the way is open to inaugurate numerous inquiries which are indispensable if American education is to be supplied with the scientific information necessary to guide state educational systems and local school districts in the conduct of their operations.

THE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS
OF THE SOUTHERN STATES

The following statement is quoted from the *Christian Science Monitor*.

Secondary schools are turning into recruiting grounds for athletes, and, as a result of the present system employed in the colleges, the secondary schools are declining in effectiveness, according to a statement of H. M. Ivy, Meridian, Mississippi, retiring president of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, at its convention in Fort Worth, Texas.

"Ambitious alumni are more assiduous in 'scouting' for promising Seniors than any scouts ever employed by major baseball-team managements," he said. Although he himself could offer no solution, the Mississippian recommended to the Association that the problem should receive thorough study as one of the most pressing in the high-school educational system today.

"Athletic achievement is rewarded and scholarship attainments slighted as of no moment when a student goes from high school to college," he declared. "As a result, the athlete finds his university expenses amply provided for, while the man who is not an athlete often runs against an embarrassing financial handicap."

During its convention the Association made a strenuous attempt to work out some means of standardization of college and secondary-school grading systems, which were characterized as "eminently unfair" by a majority of the university heads and educators assembled.

The report of a committee headed by E. L. Gillis, registrar of the University of Kentucky, which has been working on the problem for two years, aroused by far the most far-reaching and important discussion of the convention. The committee was continued, and it probably will take two or three more years to solve the problem, Mr. Ivy said.

"A student's record in a high school or preparatory school now is relatively valueless," Mr. Gillis said. "The records of Freshmen in college are used for or against the high schools from which they are graduated. If a school turns out a high percentage of students who become successful Freshmen, theoretically it is an efficient high school. Actually, its rating is dependent not at all on the way in which it trains students but upon the colleges and professors its students choose for their Freshman year."

Recommendations for a possible solution of the problem and elimination of the multiplicity of systems both in high schools and in college Freshman classes will be presented again next year at the convention, which probably will be held at Lexington, Kentucky.

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES

The ninth annual meeting of the American Association of Junior Colleges, which was held in Fort Worth, Texas, December 3-5,

1928, was attended by junior-college representatives from thirty-three states.

The junior college as an administrative unit occupied the attention of the Association for a large part of the meeting. All the morning session the first day and the dinner program were devoted to discussions of this subject. W. C. Eells and W. M. Proctor, both of Stanford University, presented papers. The paper by Dr. Eells was a continuation of his recent study of students in Stanford University. Dr. Proctor discussed the "double-four" organization as it may be adapted to the private secondary school. Frederick Eby, of the University of Texas, continued the discussion of the four-year junior-college unit, criticizing American higher education as it is now organized. He also made many interesting historical observations concerning the organization and growth of the first public (municipal) junior college that was organized on the 6-4-4 plan. Dr. Eby holds that the Hillsboro Junior College, Hillsboro, Texas, was the first institution to be thus established. The advantages of the four-year unit were pointed out by all these speakers. Charles E. Friley, of the Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, presented a study of the junior-college budget. Dean Friley's study was comprehensive. He covered the cardinal points of budgetary procedure and pointed out special items which present problems for the junior college.

Other major topics were the curriculum and instruction. Four papers were presented as follows: "Visiting College Classes" by Shelton Phelps, of the George Peabody College for Teachers, "Current Educational Readjustments in Junior Colleges" by William S. Gray, of the University of Chicago; "Education for Life as an Objective of the Junior College" by John W. Barton, of the Ward-Belmont School, Nashville, Tennessee; and "Experiments in the Improvement of Instruction in the Junior College" by Floyd W. Reeves, of the University of Kentucky.

Dr. Phelps discussed techniques for visitation of college classes and made a number of observations drawn from visitation. Dr. Gray described specific curriculum readjustments as they have been worked out and are being worked out in the lower division at the University of Chicago. Mr. Barton's paper was philosophical in nature, pointing out many of the shortcomings of our present edu-

cational organization. He urged upon the junior college the boldness to accept whatever program of studies scientific investigation may discover. Dr. Reeves made a number of observations concerning experiments in the improvement of instruction.

There were eleven other papers presented by various members of the Association. The subjects are as follows:

How Does the Junior College as an Administrative Unit Simplify the Problem of Discipline?

Junior-College Objectives from the Standpoint of the Municipal Junior College.

Salaries and Tenure of the Junior-College Faculty.

Junior-College Objectives from the Standpoint of the Private Junior College.

Junior-College Objectives from the Standpoint of the Denominational Junior College.

A Plan for State Support for Public Junior Colleges.

What Are the Predominant Objectives of Junior Colleges as They Are Reflected in Junior-College Curricula?

Are the Junior Colleges Tending To Dissipate the Spirit and the Ideals of the American Liberal-Arts College?

How Define the Term "Junior College"?

Preparation and Selection of Junior-College Teachers.

Under What Circumstances Should a Junior College Be Established?

The principal items of business were (1) the adoption of the report of a special committee on honor-scholarship societies providing for minimum requirements, (2) the adoption of the report of the Research Committee and the continuation of the committee, and (3) the adoption of resolutions regarding the waiving of the "Freshman rule" in its application to athletes transferring to four-year colleges from junior colleges.

John W. Barton, vice-president of the Ward-Belmont School, Nashville, Tennessee, was elected president. M. R. Floyd, president of the Northeastern Oklahoma Junior College, Miami, Oklahoma, was elected vice-president. Doak S. Campbell, of the George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee, was re-elected secretary-treasurer. The time and the place for the next meeting were left for the executive committee to determine. The Association indicated its preference for some place on the Atlantic seaboard.

DOAK S. CAMPBELL

COMMISSION ON SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE ASSOCIATION
OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE
MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND

Two sections of the report of the Commission on Secondary Schools of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland presented at the annual meeting of the Association by the acting chairman, Professor Arthur J. Jones, are of such general interest that they are quoted as follows:

GENERAL ATTITUDE AND POLICY OF THE COMMISSION

The general attitude and policy of the Commission, as well as of all state committees, has been that of service to colleges and secondary schools. There has been no thought of accrediting as a mechanical process. It is recognized that colleges must have clear evidence not only that a school is equipped to do efficient work but that it actually has turned out a satisfactory product and, further, that this must be evidenced by the success in college of its graduates. On the other hand, it is clearly recognized that all schools, private as well as public, have important functions to perform for the young people enrolled other than that of mere preparation for college. This is especially true of the public secondary schools, where only a small proportion of the students enrolled are preparing for college. The increasing value to schools of being included in the accredited list sometimes creates a very difficult problem. It should be clearly understood that schools not on the list may be doing just as efficient work as those on the list. They may, in fact, be serving their community better. It is only because they do not prepare well, or at all, for college that they are not included. Approval by the Commission means merely approval for accrediting to college.

The Commission takes careful cognizance also of problems of state departments of education and attempts in every way to assist them in their efforts to improve the secondary schools under their jurisdiction.

In arriving at a judgment regarding schools, types of schools are considered, and one school is compared with another in order to avoid inconsistencies and inequalities. In general, the Commission attempts to consider secondary schools as secondary schools and not as public secondary schools, private secondary schools, or special types of schools.

Approval is based fundamentally upon Standard 2, the efficiency of the school. Other standards serve merely as norms, describing the conditions which, in general, are found essential to secure efficiency. The efficiency of a school is judged by all available evidence. Among the most important considered by the Commission are:

1. Membership on a list approved by a state department of education.
2. Membership in good standing on the accredited list of several standard colleges and universities.

3. Record of the school in Regents' examinations.
4. Record of the school in standardized tests.
5. Record of the school in examinations of the College Entrance Examination Board.
6. Evidence of success of graduates in college.
7. Report of visitors for the Commission.

Since the Commission is primarily concerned with college entrance, much greater weight is placed upon the last three. It recognizes that a school that violates some of the standards may still be efficient and that some schools that conform to all other standards may not measure up in these respects. However, any school, public or private, that violates any standard must, in all cases, present positive evidence to prove its efficiency; the burden of proof rests on the school. The Commission feels that the standards set are fair and reasonable and that schools should, as rapidly as possible, conform to them.

It is very necessary that a frequent check-up of each school on the list be made. This is necessary for the following reasons:

1. To provide for continued efficiency of the schools.
2. To make sure that schools whose standards are now barely satisfactory shall improve.
3. To secure general and progressive increase in standards.
4. To provide colleges with a list of accredited schools that is always fresh and reliable.

In order to provide for this, the Commission has decided to require all schools to make an abbreviated report at least every other year and to require schools whose standards are low to fill out such supplementary reports as may be necessary every year. All new schools must, of course, fill out the complete report.

PROBLEMS OF THE COMMISSION

There are many problems confronting the Commission that will require careful analysis and prolonged study. Among the most important are the following:

1. *The size of school to be accredited.*—It is realized that very efficient work may be done in a school of even ten or fifteen students, but it is seriously questioned whether such a school can have sufficient variety of activity to develop a real school atmosphere and also whether it can insure a reasonable degree of continuity of work from year to year. What, then, is the minimum size that is essential? The Commission attempts to solve the problem by establishing a minimum number of teachers as a standard.

2. *The type of school.*—There are many different types of schools within the territory. Some of these are distinctly college preparatory with little else in the curriculum, and some are at the opposite extreme and are largely vocational with very little college-preparatory work. These are often within the same city. To approve one and not approve the other at once makes a distinction in the

public mind that is unfair. After careful consideration, the Commission feels that its function is not to usurp the function of a city or state in determining whether a school is or is not adequately performing the function for which it was organized. The function of the Commission is merely to pass upon the organization and work of the school as presented to it. If a school presents evidence that it actually does prepare satisfactorily for college, the Commission will accept it regardless of the name of the school or its general classification.

3. *Large public high schools.*—High schools of from two thousand to five thousand present problems that are difficult to solve. These have to do mostly with teaching load, size of classes, and general crowded conditions.

4. *Private schools.*—Many private schools have a short school year, much below the standard prescribed. What should be the absolute minimum for the number of days a school shall be in session? Closely related to this is the unit value of a subject. The standard universally agreed upon by colleges throughout the country is that a unit for college entrance shall be the equivalent of 120 sixty-minute hours of prepared work. Many private schools have only 105 to 110 sixty-minute hours. Some have less than 100, and yet their students are regularly accepted in colleges and make a creditable record. What shall be the minimum standard for a unit?

5. *Library and laboratory standards.*—The standards regarding library and laboratory facilities are vague and indefinite. Many schools have written asking for help in providing facilities to meet these standards. We are now at work upon the construction of some standards for libraries and laboratories. These must, of course, be flexible and yet definite enough to be really helpful. Two graduate students have taken these as research problems. We are hopeful of results that will be helpful if not entirely adequate.

FREE HIGHER EDUCATION IN FRANCE

Three years ago the proposal of the minister of education of France to make higher education free was met with a storm of protest from the conservatives. The following paragraphs, which appeared in the *Chicago Daily News*, show how conditions have changed and how slowly but surely democratic tendencies are entering into the educational systems of Europe, where until the last few years higher education was the exclusive privilege of the upper classes.

One of the most important social reforms in the French third republic passed unnoticed when, while adopting the budget for public education, the Chamber of Deputies voted recently a small credit for the first step toward complete free admission in the secondary schools and *lycées* now charging tuition fees.

Free admission to the public primary schools has been established since the

eighties. Now the French state will give all boys and girls, even if penniless, a chance to pursue higher studies. This will mean in some years a higher level in the French intellectual standard.

NEW CONDITIONS OF ADMISSION AT THE COLORADO
STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE

The Colorado State Teachers College has issued a communication addressed to high-school principals and superintendents describing new conditions for the admission of students. The announcement of the new policy is as follows:

We take pleasure in announcing a new policy concerning admission to the College.

In keeping with the best educational thinking of the day and as a result of careful experimentation over a period of four years, the College has decided to admit any high-school graduate who is recommended by you, who has health, character, and ability to do college work.

This college believes that the high-school curriculum is a high-school problem, and we shall make no attempt to dictate specific subjects of study required for graduation and admission to college.

Our experience demonstrates that an applicant, to succeed in our college and as a teacher later in life, should have—

1. A good high-school record. Those who rank in the lowest one-fourth of a graduating class seldom do acceptable college work.
2. A good moral character. Those who do not qualify under this head cannot be certificated as teachers.
3. Good health. Students who have communicable diseases or noticeable physical defects should not attempt to be teachers.
4. Ability to do college work. This is determined by scores made on certain tests at the time of matriculation (English, intelligence, achievement, and teaching aptitude).

After announcing this new policy, the communication continues as follows:

For the past three years the Department of Educational Research of the Colorado State Teachers College has been conducting a series of continuation studies of the causes of college-student mortality and the relationship of these losses to intelligence and to scholarship in college.

Taking the class entering college in the fall of 1927, out of a total of 559, 28 (5 per cent) were dropped from college at the close of the fall quarter; 16 (57 per cent) of these were in the lowest fifth in intelligence as measured with the Thurstone test, and over 64 per cent were in the lower half in intelligence. From the upper fifth in intelligence, but six students were dropped at the close of the first quarter.

A score on this intelligence test is a reliable indication of ability to succeed in the Colorado State Teachers College.

In this same entering class of 559, out of the 98 students who were in the lowest fifth in intelligence, 32 (about one-third) did the poorest work in their college studies, being found in the lowest fifth in scholarship also.

The chances are as many as one in three that a student with the lowest intelligence will do the poorest work and at least one in fourteen that he never can do as good college work as students in the highest fifth in scholarship.

During the second quarter of 1927-28, 76 more of the 559 entering Freshmen dropped out of college. More than a third (34 per cent) of them were in the lowest fifth in intelligence, and over two-thirds (68 per cent) were in the lower half. Less than 8 per cent were among the most intelligent group.

At the close of the third quarter of last year, only 430 of the 559 students who began work in the fall completed their work of the year. One hundred and twenty-nine failed. Nearly one-fourth (23 per cent) of the Freshman class failed to do their first year of work.

The average scholarship rating of the least intelligent students for three quarters was C-(2.57), and for the most intelligent B-(3.58). Intelligence scores correlate positively with college scholarship (+.45 to +.50).

Intelligence predicts college scholarship with the chances even that there will be an error of not more than one-third of a letter grade in a five-letter system.

The average intelligence of the entering class of 1926 increased nearly 20 per cent over a two-year period. Students with low intelligence scores dropped out.

The reader of these two series of statements is left in some doubt as to the exact policy which is to be followed. The new entrance requirements are health, character, and ability to do college work. Apparently the system which was in operation in 1927 did not select with any high degree of success those who had ability to do college work. Would it not be better, on the whole, for the Colorado State Teachers College and the high schools to co-operate in reaching, if possible, some decision in advance with regard to the probable ability of individual students to do college work? Would it not be better to effect this co-operative selection before the date of matriculation? If the Thurstone test is to be used, will it not be likely to condition the high-school curriculum in spite of the statement that "the high-school curriculum is a high-school problem"? In short, does not the Colorado State Teachers College take back with its left hand what it presents with its right?

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF AMATEUR SPORTS

The following statement is quoted from the *United States Daily*.

Abuses that have developed in connection with amateur sports, especially abuses of a psychological nature, are the problems for which solutions are sought by the International Bureau of Sport Pedagogy, recently organized at Lausanne, Switzerland.

The Section of Foreign Education Systems, Bureau of Education, Department of the Interior, has just translated a note on the subject transmitted by the Swiss Legation in Washington. The note explains the various dangers to youth from wrong emphasis in sports.

Too early contact with competition, applause, and some psychological attitudes connected with sports, it says, blunts the moral and social value which might be developed at a later time. The wrong sort of training is being given, it is stated, if sport cannot be used during the leisure of adult life when physical health is of the utmost importance.

The full text of the note, as translated, follows.

"It is not surprising to find some abuses in such a powerful and universal movement as that of modern sports. But the abuses are of such a nature that they can be corrected if their origin is discovered and a resolute effort is made to counteract them.

"The International Bureau of Sport Pedagogy, as soon as it was instituted through the initiative of the city of Lausanne, busied itself with the question of where it would be best for it to apply any corrective measures.

"The directors of the Bureau consider that at present the general faults are: (1) The children and the schools are the prey of premature sport organizations. This is a result of the modern tendency to develop in almost every field a precocity from which one expects ever increasing results.

"This hastening of the springtime of life is to be feared; it will not lengthen the summer but will merely hasten the autumn; the natural order of development ought not to be disturbed.

"The child who is subjected too much to the influences connected with sports—association, enthusiasm, rivalry, applause—will become enervated and confused. Premature contact with these blunts their moral and social value, and the result is that they do not function at an age when teachers would be able to make a really effective appeal.

"2. The adolescent is likely to be impelled by an appetite for competition of such force and frequency that an unusual physical fatigue and a dissipation of mental capacity result. Sports, instead of being a wise counterpoise of mental work, become the principal juvenile activity; studies directed toward the indispensable diploma come to be only hastily prepared.

"3. The injurious influences—bluffing, advertising, and attraction toward material profit—appear early. The wretched example of their elders gives young people the wrong point of view.

"So far, we must admit, almost no effort has been made to correct this. Sport writers, encouraged by those whose interests they serve, are becoming more and more commercialists.

"This phenomenon, no doubt, has a transitory element. Meanwhile, however, if the bad examples in question make no effort to correct themselves, outside effort must be made to neutralize their influence.

"4. The 'Olympic' mentality, which is really based on pursuit of the cult of 'breaking the world record,' has unfortunately appeared in those who haven't a ghost's chance of seriously competing. The emulation of sports, which finds its expression in the quinquennial games, is perhaps necessary to keep sports up to the mark.

"It really is a worthy objective to break a record, but by the side of the international record, and the national record whose nature is the same, is 'my record.' This is an objective which all can have and represents a lever of virile culture the importance of which seems to have been forgotten.

"The Swedish sport medal, which may be won in any of three grades, and the Herbert prize of the French with its gradations 'from zero up' are profitable examples. There are others, and they should be discovered and emulated.

"5. If dangerous exaggerations in regard to sports develop in infancy and adolescence, individuals will arrive at maturity unfitted to make use of sports in unexpected leisure without the loss of time and at a minimum expense. The present system does not train the individual for that.

"Negligence is at the bottom of all the problems which we are studying. In order to prolong the period of sport activity, its opening must be retarded.

"The adult is the one for whom good health is most important, not only for the good of his technical group but for the general good as well. It is evident that the conditions under which he will devote himself to sport are very different from those that satisfy young people. The ancients knew that, and we have forgotten it.

"Nothing has come to fill the place of the gymnasium of the Greek city. But municipalities are alive to the need.

"In Germany there have been developments along this line that are significant. There are American examples worthy of note also, and it is possible that a new era is about to dawn.

"6. Sport pedagogy should adjust itself to this anticipated development. This new science of sport psychology, of which Matthew Arnold was the precursor, had its birth in Lausanne at the first Congress of Sport Psychology in 1913. An effort was made then to combine the Olympic International Committee and the public authorities of Lausanne and Vaud.

"The address was by the eminent Italian, Guglielmo Ferrero, and Roosevelt sent a singularly personal message from America. We wish to revive those early efforts which the tragic conflict interrupted. The physiologists, however, must allow the psychologists a chance to study the field which they have so thoroughly developed.

"The persons which the Bureau wishes to consult with before proceeding are the parents, teachers, public officials, and young people themselves, many of whom are conscious of the dangers and wish to see them avoided even at the price of some sacrifice.

"The Bureau does not wish to lay down any iron-bound rules of procedure, but, in general, the tentative program adopted is that of the Solvay Scientific Congress. This great Belgian group has demonstrated that the best results are obtained by calling together a limited number of interested persons, competent to discuss a limited number of previously proposed problems."

DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED IN CONDUCTING SCHOOL EXPERIMENTS

The December, 1928, issue of the *Denver Public Schools Bulletin* includes an article which warns against inadequate organization of school experiments. The major part of this article is as follows:

Ability to foresee the situation.—When an experiment is to be tried, a new organization has to be set up. The new procedure to be tried requires new administrative arrangements. Some values of the old organization may be lost so that provision must be made to compensate for them in some way. The details of carrying on the experiment must be worked out. Each step in the new procedure must be anticipated. It is difficult to do this completely. In most experiments it is not done perfectly. A few examples will illustrate.

Difficulty with reference books.—A high-school teacher decided to try the experiment of using reference books entirely in science-teaching instead of a central text supplemented by reference books. Careful preparation was made for the conduct of the experiment. The groups were carefully equated so that the pupils of the same ability were found both in the experimental group, using reference books only, and in the control group, using the central text with reference books. After a week of instruction, a difficulty developed. The slower pupils in the experimental group, using only the reference books, lacked the ability to get from several reference books, with varied phraseology and nomenclature, the information assigned. Their old habits in depending on a definite assignment from a single text explained by the teacher had not prepared them for this new method. They lacked the intelligence and consequently the independence to read and select for themselves. As a result, the experiment was modified to meet this unforeseen difficulty.

Parents unable to control children.—Another example of the lack of ability to foresee the whole situation is the case of an experiment to determine whether underweight children could be brought up to weight by securing the interest and co-operation of the home. A group of underweight children was selected in an elementary school. An invitation was sent to the parents asking them to meet in the school to arrange the experiment. Parents came and showed great interest and intelligence in the values of nutrition and health habits. Discussion

revealed finally that the parents were already doing much of what was to be proposed to them, but they were unable to control these underweight children. It developed that theirs was a behavior problem as well as a nutrition problem. This altered the whole situation. Such a contingency could not be foreseen.

The plan of trying an experiment informally before setting it up in a more formal way is of great value. It gives the experimenter an opportunity to see his machinery operating and brings to light the issues involved.

DANISH SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The following statement by H. Percival Dodge, United States minister at Copenhagen, which was published in *School Life*, indicates that Denmark is reconstructing secondary schools along lines not unlike those which are being followed in the United States.

The minister of public instruction of Denmark has decided to appoint a commission for submitting a proposal for the complete reorganization of the secondary educational system. This commission will be instructed to elaborate its recommendations on the following basis: The reorganization of the higher courses of the secondary schools so that the term of the gymnasium will be four years instead of three and the term of the real schools will be two years instead of one. The proposal further contemplates the abolition of the middle-school examinations although retaining the middle school itself as a three-year course coming after that of the public school. It is stated that this reorganization will involve certain economies to be embodied in a separate bill which will be introduced during the present session.

SCHOOL THEATERS

Nathaniel Edward Reeid, of Longmans, Green and Company, 55 Fifth Avenue, New York City, has prepared designs which will be helpful to anyone who is planning a school theater. The designs have been submitted to a number of experts and embody the features which these experts regard as essential. Copies of the designs can be secured gratis by writing to Mr. Reeid.

ASSEMBLY PROGRAMS

The American Friends Service Committee, 20 South Twelfth Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, has issued a pamphlet of forty-six pages entitled *Education in Worldmindedness*, which describes a number of assembly programs presented by pupils in the Woodbury High School, Woodbury, New Jersey. The price of the pamphlet is ten cents.

The assembly programs were prepared by Rachel Davis-DuBois

and were designed to impress on the pupils the intimate relations of the various nations to one another.

An idea of the types of programs which are outlined in the pamphlet can be gained from the two following programs.

PROGRAM I

THE COMMON ORIGINS OF LANGUAGES

1. A large chart showing history of English language shown on the stage with speech of explanation.

2. Eleven students, each representing a different racial group, told in turn a short story, using words in our language contributed by their groups.

Example.—First came a *Hebrew*, accompanied by a *cherub* carrying a pot of *manna* on the *Sabbath Day* in the year of *Jubilee*. The accompanying *seraphs* sang *Amen*. These were followed by a Hindu *pariah*, clothed in calico, who had just emerged from the *jungle*. He had secured a *shampoo*, some *punch*, and some *toddy* for a few *rupees*.

3. A Latin student gave a brief talk on Latin roots in our English words.

4. Picture writing. Story of Champollion and the Rosetta stone.

5. Charades—word study. Example, "trivial." The kind of stories told at the inn where the three ways meet.

PROGRAM II

PRESENT CONDITIONS—LANGUAGE OF TODAY

"America, the melting pot, has a language which is democratic and cosmopolitan."

1. Short recitations in various dialects given: New England, Western, Negro, English, Canadian, Italian.

2. How language grows. Is the use of slang wholly unjustifiable? Need for better English. Need for simplified spelling.

"Words are not shopworn instruments of a single use but virtual planets with light and heat and relativity, with more facets than a king's jewels, and a history through the ages that would encompass a thick volume for each of them."—Rebecca Kohut in *My Portion*.

"The use of slang is allowable for the purpose of expressing fresh phases of thought and ideas not yet provided with representative words."

"It is an important service that Columbia University is doing in recording for the phonograph specimens of twenty-six of the dialects spoken in the United States, and the importance of the service will increase as time goes on."—Editorial, *New York World*, August 1, 1928.

THE PROFESSIONAL FILES OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS^{*}

W. C. REAVIS AND ROBERT WOELLNER
University of Chicago

In most secondary schools there is a constant flow of professional material into the office of the principal. By "professional material" is meant educational magazines, bulletins, catalogues, announcements, reprints, and reports of educational investigations, many of which deal specifically with problems closely related to secondary-school administration. The principal may not have the time to examine such material carefully when it comes to his desk. However, if he notes the general character of the material and gives it a subject heading, the material may be filed for subsequent use. Many principals have discovered through experience the value of filing professional material systematically in anticipation of future needs. The material, irrespective of the system or method of filing used, may be designated as the professional files of the principal.

Four hundred and forty-six, or 85.4 per cent, of the 522 representative principals considered in this study maintain files for the orderly preservation of professional material. The practice is the least common in the small schools in Group 1 (4-100), in which five, or 55.6 per cent, of the principals reported the use of professional files. Seventy-two per cent of the principals of the small schools in Groups 1-3 (4-300), 85.0 per cent of the principals of the middle-sized schools in Groups 4-6 (301-1,000), and 92.3 per cent of the principals of the large schools in Groups 7-9 (1,001-6,500) have professional files. The number and the percentage of principals in the schools in each enrolment group who maintain files of professional material are shown in Table I.

^{*} This article is the fifth of a series of articles dealing with certain aspects of secondary-school administration. The first four articles were published in the October, November, and December, 1928, and January, 1929, numbers of the *School Review*.

The most common method of filing professional material is to use folders which carry titles indicating the nature of the contents of the folders. To the knowledge of the writers, no extensive study of the subject headings or captions used by principals in systematic filing has been made. A study of the files of fifteen principals of secondary schools in Kansas¹ showed a total of 718 subject headings. Lack of agreement with regard to the subject headings is indicated by the fact that no single subject heading was employed by more than ten of the fifteen principals, and in only one case was that

TABLE I

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF PRINCIPALS WHO MAINTAIN
FILES OF PROFESSIONAL MATERIAL

Enrolment Group	Number	Per Cent
1 (4-100).....	5	55.6
2 (101-200).....	19	65.5
3 (201-300).....	43	78.2
4 (301-500).....	61	81.3
5 (501-700).....	65	90.3
6 (701-1,000).....	73	83.9
7 (1,001-1,500).....	91	95.8
8 (1,501-2,000).....	49	86.0
9 (2,001-6,500).....	40	93.0
Total.....	446	85.4

amount of agreement found. Of the 718 subject headings, 194, or 27.0 per cent, were used by only a single school. Forty-seven subject headings were used in two schools, twenty-seven in three schools, twenty-one in four schools, fifteen in five schools, nine in six schools, six in seven schools, six in eight schools, four in nine schools, and one in ten schools. The range in number of subject headings in the files of thirteen of the fifteen principals was from 7 to 107. Two principals did not use subject headings.

As shown in Table II, 95.6 per cent of the 522 schools are equipped with filing cabinets, which make possible the orderly filing of professional material. The small schools in Groups 1 and 2 (4-200) are equipped with filing cabinets in 66.7 per cent and 79.3 per

¹ M. R. Gray, "The Office Practices of High-School Principals," pp. 139-40. Unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1927.

cent of the cases, respectively. The schools in the other groups have filing cabinets in from 94.5 per cent to 100.0 per cent of the cases. However, only in Group 9 (2,001-6,500) are all the schools equipped with filing cabinets.

It is evident that the filing cabinet is very generally recognized as a part of the equipment of the office of the secondary-school principal. The problem for the principal, then, is to develop the practice of filing systematically the professional material which comes to his desk.

TABLE II

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF PRINCIPALS' OFFICES
EQUIPPED WITH FILING CABINETS

Enrolment Group	Number	Per Cent
1 (4-100).....	6	66.7
2 (101-200).....	23	79.3
3 (201-300).....	52	94.5
4 (301-500).....	74	98.7
5 (501-700).....	69	95.8
6 (701-1,000).....	84	96.6
7 (1,001-1,500).....	94	98.9
8 (1,501-2,000).....	54	94.7
9 (2,001-6,500).....	43	100.0
Total.....	499	95.6

Table III shows that 341, or 65.3 per cent, of the principals file professional material alphabetically in folders with subject headings.¹ For example, the principal may have received a bulletin from the public schools of Oakland, California, entitled *Studies in Character Growth in the High Schools*. The principal notes the general character of the bulletin and concludes that it may be of future

¹ The following subject headings were selected from the professional files of a secondary-school principal:

Activity period, Organization and administration of	Examination questions
Assembly programs	Failure in secondary schools
Attention profiles of problem pupils	French—list of easy reading material
Curriculum in first-year algebra—Maine Township High School	Grouping, Experiments in
Dean of girls, Duties of	Guidance—bulletins and bibliography
Dormitories in public secondary schools	Honor societies, Methods of electing members of

professional use. He writes "Character education" on the title-page and lays the bulletin in his filing tray. The bulletin is then placed by the clerk in a folder under the subject heading "Character education" and put in the proper alphabetical place in the filing cabinet. Similar material may be added to the folder from time to time, such as Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 7 for 1926, entitled *Character Education*; a reprint of the article by S. A. Courtis entitled "The

TABLE III

METHODS USED BY PRINCIPALS IN FILING PROFESSIONAL MATERIAL

Enrolment Group	Number of Schools in Group	Number of Principals Who File Material in Folders Alphabetically under Subject Headings	Number of Principals Who File Material in Folders Alphabetically under Names of Authors	Number of Principals Who File Material in Folders by Subject Headings with Cross-Reference Files of Authors and Titles	Number of Principals Who Store Material in Unclassified Order
1 (4-100).....	9	5	1	0	4
2 (101-200).....	29	18	4	2	6
3 (201-300).....	55	32	6	7	12
4 (301-500).....	75	43	13	7	21
5 (501-700).....	72	49	14	4	22
6 (701-1,000).....	87	55	14	4	27
7 (1,001-1,500).....	95	70	13	10	30
8 (1,501-2,000).....	57	42	7	7	14
9 (2,001-6,500).....	43	27	10	3	13
Total.....	522	341	82	44	149

Development of Standards of Conduct," which was published in the issue of *School and Society* for September 10, 1927; and material from the Character Education Institution, Chevy Chase, Washington, D.C. The material filed may prove to be of considerable value to the principal when questions arise with regard to character education. The method is simple, and it enables principals to dispose of material quickly, but its success depends on the character of the subject headings under which the material is filed.¹ If the subject heading and the material filed are not clearly associated in the mind

¹ See *List of Educational Subject Headings*, prepared by L. Belle Voegelien for the Committee on the Classification of Educational Materials of the National Education Association Commission on Coordination of Research Agencies. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1928. Pp. xiv+338.

of the principal or the file clerk, difficulty may be encountered in locating the material in the file.

Eighty-two, or 15.7 per cent, of the principals file professional material alphabetically under the name of the author. Obviously, this method is less effective than the method of filing by subject unless it is supplemented by cross-reference files. Only forty-four, or 8.4 per cent, of the principals use the scientific method of supplementing the subject file with cross-reference card files for both authors and titles. With the clerical help available, it is surprising that only a relatively small number of principals use supplementary cross-reference files for their professional material. The keeping of such files is purely a routine matter for a clerk. When the clerk files the bulletin received from Oakland, California, for example, it is a simple matter to make two cards for the cross-reference files, one reading "Oakland, California, Public Schools, *Studies in Character Growth in the High Schools*—Character Education," and one reading "*Studies in Character Growth in the High Schools*, Oakland, California, Public Schools—Character Education." It is scarcely probable that both the principal and the clerk will forget all the titles when a professional problem involving character education arises.

One hundred and forty-nine, or 28.5 per cent, of the principals preserve their professional material in unclassified order in bookcases or other places and depend on the chance of a successful rummage when the need for particular material arises.

The data in Table III show that some of the principals reported more than one practice since the total exceeds the number of principals reporting. The wording of the questions which the principals checked made possible an overlapping of practices if material is disposed of by more than one method, as is frequently the case.

The principals of the large schools in Groups 7-9 (1,001-6,500) slightly excel the principals of the schools in the other groups in their methods of filing. Seventy-one and three-tenths per cent of the principals of the large schools file their professional material alphabetically under subject headings, and 10.3 per cent employ the scientific method of cross-reference files for authors and titles. The middle-sized schools in Groups 4-6 (301-1,000) rank second in the case of the first method, with a percentage of 62.8, but third

in the case of the scientific method, with a percentage of 6.4. The small schools in Groups 1-3 (4-300) rank third in the case of the first method, with a percentage of 59.1, but second in the case of the scientific method, with a percentage of 9.7. In the use of the storage method, the principals of the small schools are slightly superior to the principals of the middle-sized and large schools, the percentage for the former being 23.7, while the percentages for the latter are 29.9 and 29.2, respectively. The data as a whole indicate a fairly satisfactory situation with respect to the filing of professional material in the majority of the 522 secondary schools.

The professional magazines provide both current and future reference material for the use of principals in the solution of administrative problems, such as the organization and administration of an activity program,¹ the revision of the curriculum,² the selection of a textbook in social science,³ and the classification of pupils according to ability.⁴ Problems of current interest and concern are usually treated in the periodicals in advance of their treatment in professional books. In fact, the professional magazines frequently exercise exclusive rights in the brief treatment of specific problems of certain types, such as current practices, devices, reports, and minor experiments. Unless the professional magazines are read carefully when they appear or are filed systematically for later use, the principal may lose a valuable type of professional material for the enrichment of his experience and for his guidance in administrative work.

Table IV shows that 280, or 53.6 per cent, of the 522 principals merely file their professional magazines in chronological order. One hundred and sixty-seven, or 32.0 per cent, of the principals do not file their magazines chronologically, and seventy-five failed to answer the question. While the material in the magazines is preserved

¹ C. V. Millard, "Organization and Administration of the Activity Program," *School Review*, XXXVI (October, 1928), 618-21.

² George S. Counts, "Who Shall Make the Curriculum?" *School Review*, XXXV (May, 1927), 332-39.

³ Edwin J. Dahl, "Choosing a Textbook in the Senior High School Social Sciences," *School Review*, XXXV (October, 1927), 621-26.

⁴ Anne E. Smead, "An Experiment in the Classification of Ninth-Grade Pupils According to Ability," *School Review*, XXXV (November, 1927), 673-75.

by chronological filing, it is doubtful whether the principal will find the chronological method of filing either practical or efficient unless supplementary files are kept. At best, the method is a plan of storage rather than a system of filing. The practice is followed, however, by 36.6 per cent of the principals of the small schools in Groups 1-3 (4-300), by 54.7 per cent of the principals of the middle-sized schools in Groups 4-6 (301-1,000), and by 60.5 per cent of the prin-

TABLE IV

DATA CONCERNING METHODS OF FILING PROFESSIONAL MAGAZINES AND THE ADEQUACY OF THE METHODS IN USE AS THE BASES OF GROWING PROFESSIONAL FILES

Enrolment Group	Number of Schools in Group	Number of Principals Who File Professional Magazines in Chronological Order	Number of Principals Who Clip Magazine Articles and File Them under Subject Headings	Number of Principals Who Consider Method in Use an Adequate Basis for a Growing Professional File	Number of Principals Who Do Not Consider Method in Use an Adequate Basis for a Growing Professional File
1 (4-100)	9	3	1	3	4
2 (101-200)	29	10	7	8	17
3 (201-300)	55	21	13	19	27
4 (301-500)	75	39	21	26	43
5 (501-700)	72	39	12	25	36
6 (701-1,000)	87	50	23	29	50
7 (1,001-1,500)	95	56	30	44	45
8 (1,501-2,000)	57	33	19	24	20
9 (2,001-6,500)	43	29	10	22	16
Total	522	280	136	200	258

cipals of the large schools in Groups 7-9 (1,001-6,500). The data show that chronological filing of professional magazines is practiced with increasing frequency as the schools increase in size.

Table IV also shows that 136, or 26.1 per cent, of the 522 principals clip professional articles and file them in folders under subject headings. The range in practice is from 11.1 per cent in the case of the principals of the small schools in Group 1 (4-100) to 33.3 per cent in the case of the principals of the large schools in Group 8 (1,501-2,000). Twenty-one, or 22.6 per cent, of the principals of the small schools in Groups 1-3 (4-300), 23.9 per cent of the principals of the middle-sized schools in Groups 4-6 (301-1,000), and 30.3

per cent of the principals of the large schools in Groups 7-9 (1,001-6,500) clip magazine articles and file them under subject headings. Two hundred and eighty-seven principals, or 55.0 per cent, indicated that they do not clip articles for filing, and ninety-nine, or 19.0 per cent, did not answer the question.

Further light on the systematic filing of magazine articles is gained from the data in the last two columns of Table IV, which show the responses of the principals to the question: "Is the system of filing magazine articles now employed sufficiently comprehensive and efficient to serve as the basis of a growing professional file?" Only 200 principals, or 38.3 per cent, regard their present methods as adequate. On the other hand, 258, or 49.4 per cent, consider the methods in use unsatisfactory; 64, or 12.3 per cent, did not answer the question. Thirty-two and three-tenths per cent of the principals of the small schools in Groups 1-3 (4-300), 34.2 per cent of the principals of the middle-sized schools in Groups 4-6 (301-1,000), and 46.2 per cent of the principals of the large schools in Groups 7-9 (1,001-6,500) regard their present methods of filing magazine articles as adequate. The principals of the large schools are apparently better satisfied with their methods of filing magazine articles than are the principals of either the small schools or the middle-sized schools.

Table V shows that 440, or 84.3 per cent, of the 522 principals file college catalogues, bulletins, and announcements. Such material is essential in planning curriculums for different groups of pupils and in giving guidance to individual pupils in the choice of subjects. Fairly complete files of catalogues, bulletins, and announcements facilitate the making of curriculum adjustments and the giving of educational counsel and advice.

The practice of filing college catalogues, bulletins, and announcements is more common in the large schools than in either the small schools or the middle-sized schools. Ninety and eight-tenths per cent of the large schools in Groups 7-9 (1,001-6,500) maintain files of college publications, while 84.6 per cent of the middle-sized schools in Groups 4-6 (301-1,000) and 69.9 per cent of the small schools in Groups 1-3 (4-300) keep such files. Only 65, or 12.4 per cent, of the principals reported that files of college publications are not

kept. Seventeen^a principals, or 3.3 per cent, did not supply information regarding their practices.

TABLE V
NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS WHO FILE COLLEGE CATALOGUES, BULLETINS,
AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

Enrolment Group	Number of Principals Who File College Catalogues, Bulletins, and Announcements	Number of Principals Who Do Not File College Cata- logues, Bulletins, and Announce- ments	Number of Principals Who Did Not Answer the Question
1 (4-100).....	4	4	1
2 (101-200).....	22	7	0
3 (201-300).....	39	11	5
4 (301-500).....	57	18	0
5 (501-700).....	64	6	2
6 (701-1,000).....	77	7	3
7 (1,001-1,500).....	86	8	1
8 (1,501-2,000).....	50	3	4
9 (2,001-6,500).....	41	1	1
Total.....	440	65	17

TABLE VI
NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS WHO FILE COMMERCIAL CATALOGUES, PRICE
LISTS, AND SAMPLES

Enrolment Group	Number of Principals Who File Commercial Catalogues, Price Lists, and Samples	Number of Principals Who Do Not File Commercial Catalogues, Price Lists, and Samples	Number of Principals Who Did Not Answer the Question
1 (4-100).....	5	3	1
2 (101-200).....	22	6	1
3 (201-300).....	41	10	4
4 (301-500).....	54	18	3
5 (501-700).....	58	12	2
6 (701-1,000).....	67	19	1
7 (1,001-1,500).....	69	24	2
8 (1,501-2,000).....	33	18	6
9 (2,001-6,500).....	31	11	1
Total.....	380	121	21

In the preparation of the annual budget and of estimates for purchases, the principal is frequently required to examine catalogues and in some instances to consider samples. Time and effort are

saved if adequate files of catalogues, price lists, and samples are maintained in anticipation of future needs. The practice of establishing and maintaining such files is followed by 380, or 72.8 per cent, of the 522 principals. The frequency of the practice in the nine groups of schools, as shown in Table VI, indicates a very general recognition on the part of the principals of the need for systematic filing of such material in the administration of the business affairs of the schools. The table shows also that 121, or 23.2 per cent, of the principals do not maintain commercial files, and that 21, or 4.0 per cent, of the principals did not answer the question. The middle-sized schools in Groups 4-6 (301-1,000) lead in following the practice of filing commercial material, with 76.5 per cent; the small schools in Groups 1-3 (4-300) are second, with 73.1 per cent; and the large schools in Groups 7-9 (1,001-6,500) are third, with 68.2 per cent. The differences in the percentages, however, are so slight that one is justified in concluding that the majority of the principals, irrespective of the size of the schools, regard with favor the practice of maintaining commercial files.

SUMMARY

Analysis of the data regarding the methods employed by 522 principals of secondary schools in the filing of professional material shows that 85.4 per cent of the principals undertake to maintain some kind of files. Approximately 10 per cent of the principals have filing devices which they fail to use for filing professional material. Sixty-five and three-tenths per cent of the principals file their accumulated professional material alphabetically under subject headings. Fifteen and seven-tenths per cent of the principals file their material under the names of the authors, while 8.4 per cent file by subject headings with cross-references to authors and titles. Twenty-eight and five-tenths per cent of the principals store some or all of their material in unclassified order. Two hundred and eighty principals, or 53.6 per cent, file their professional magazines in chronological order, while 136, or 26.1 per cent, clip important articles and file them in folders under subject headings. Only 200 principals of the entire group of 522, or 38.3 per cent, are satisfied that their present methods of filing afford adequate bases for grow-

ing professional files. Four hundred and forty, or 84.3 per cent, of the principals follow the practice of filing college catalogues, bulletins, and announcements; and 380, or 72.8 per cent, file commercial catalogues, price lists, and samples.

The data as a whole show that the importance of efficient filing is recognized by the large majority of the 522 principals who contributed to the study. Forty-nine and four-tenths per cent of the principals are dissatisfied with their present methods of filing; 38.3 per cent are apparently satisfied; 12.3 per cent appear not to recognize at all the importance of the systematic filing of professional material as an aid in administration.

The question of first importance in professional filing is the use that is made of the material filed. Merely to file material without making use of it is a poor practice indeed. However, an orderly professional file of itself provides an incentive to use. It has such a vital relation to the problems of administration that it is indispensable to an efficient principal. It encourages him to substitute facts for opinions and to utilize the findings of research in the administration of his school.

OBJECTIVES OF UNITED STATES HISTORY: THE AIMS OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL VERSUS THE EX- PECTATIONS OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

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The articulation of the several divisions of the public-school system is one of the most insistent of educational problems. No doubt one of the more important causes of the lack of satisfactory articulation is the disparity between the objectives aimed at by elementary-school teachers and the abilities that high-school teachers expect pupils to possess when they enter the secondary school. Such abilities are so varied and so numerous that a complete inventory is all but impossible. Nevertheless, there is a real need for inventories of the objectives aimed at by elementary-school teachers, of the abilities actually engendered, and of the expectations held by high-school teachers. Perhaps inventories can include little more than the most important and significant outcomes, the "minimum essentials," but even those would be distinctly helpful.¹

A recent study of the objectives of United States history² suggested the possibility of comparing the objectives of United States history held by elementary-school teachers with those held by high-school teachers. A later study³ provided an opportunity to secure data from high-school teachers which might be compared with data previously obtained from elementary-school teachers.

¹ These statements are not intended to imply that the propaedeutic function of the elementary school should be overstressed. However, it is an important function, and each advance division of the school system should take full advantage of the foundation laid by the preceding division.

² Walter S. Monroe and M. E. Herriott, *Objectives of United States History in Grades Seven and Eight*. Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 33. University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. XXIII, No. 3. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, 1926. Pp. 68.

³ This study was made by Charles W. Odell; it eventuated in tentative editions of a number of scales for rating pupils' answers to thought questions in several high-school subjects, among the scales being "Scales for Rating Pupils' Answers to Nine Types of Thought Questions in American History for Use in Junior and Senior High Schools." Urbana, Illinois: Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois, 1927. Pp. 20.

In the first study questionnaires were sent to all public-school teachers in two counties in Illinois—Champaign and Piatt—except the teachers employed in the schools in the city of Champaign. Among other questions were the following:

Give twenty to twenty-five dates in United States history which you believe children completing the seventh and eighth grades should know.

Give the names of thirty to fifty persons in United States history which you believe children completing the seventh and eighth grades should know well enough so that (1) given the event with which the person was connected and his relation to it or his major accomplishments, the pupil will be able to supply the name, or (2) given the name of the person, the pupil will be able to tell the thing for which he is noted.¹

Usable lists of dates were received from 164 elementary-school teachers who had had experience in teaching United States history; usable lists of names were received from 163 such teachers.

In the second investigation a list of 112 dates, made up from the 233 dates submitted by the first group of teachers, and a list of 238 names, made up from the 360 names submitted, were sent to a selected group of teachers of American history in high schools in Illinois. They were asked "to look over the inclosed lists of dates and names of persons and to check them" as follows: "Place a check mark *in front of* each date or name which you think a pupil entering high school should have learned in elementary school and . . . a check mark *after* each date or name which you think a pupil should learn during a high-school course in *American* history." Adequate space was left for dates and names that the teachers might wish to add. Usable checked lists of dates were received from 135 teachers; usable lists of names, from 128 teachers.

On the basis of these data it is possible to compare the date and name objectives of United States history in the elementary school as held by elementary-school teachers with those held by high-school teachers.² For this purpose, the fifty-two dates³ most fre-

¹ Walter S. Monroe and M. E. Herriott, *op. cit.*, p. 9.

² When it is remembered that almost all the schools in Illinois are organized on the 8-4 plan, such a comparison is valid. Where the three-year junior high school has been widely adopted, this unit should be taken into consideration in making such comparisons.

³ Walter S. Monroe and M. E. Herriott, *op. cit.*, p. 15. The original intention had been to use the first fifty dates inasmuch as many published lists include approximately that number of dates to be learned in United States history in the elementary school. The fiftieth date, however, was of equal rank with two others; a list of either forty-nine or fifty-two dates was therefore necessary.

quently mentioned by the 164 elementary-school teachers in Champaign and Piatt counties and the fifty names of persons mentioned most frequently by the 163 teachers are taken as bases.

Table I presents evidence bearing on the extent to which the elementary-school teachers and the high-school teachers agree on the dates to be taught in United States history. It is apparent from this table that there is appreciable agreement when consideration is given to the twenty-six dates most frequently mentioned, seventeen of the twenty-six being common to the two elementary-school

TABLE I

NUMBER OF DATES COMMON TO THE FIFTY-TWO DATES MOST FREQUENTLY MENTIONED BY THE ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND BY THE HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS*

	164 Elementary-School Teachers	135 High-School Teachers (Elementary-School List)
First twenty-six dates:		
135 high-school teachers (elementary-school list)...	17
135 high-school teachers (secondary-school list)...	7	3
Second twenty-six dates:		
135 high-school teachers (elementary-school list)...	6
135 high-school teachers (secondary-school list)...	8	11
First fifty-two dates:		
135 high-school teachers (elementary-school list)...	37
135 high-school teachers (secondary-school list)...	30	28

* This table is to be read as follows: Of the twenty-six dates most frequently mentioned by 164 elementary-school teachers as objectives of United States history in the elementary school, seventeen are among the twenty-six most frequently mentioned by 135 high-school teachers as objectives of United States history in the elementary school, and seven are among the twenty-six dates most frequently mentioned as objectives of United States history in the secondary school.

lists prepared by the elementary-school teachers and the high-school teachers. Only seven of the twenty-six dates are common to the elementary-school list prepared by the elementary-school teachers and the secondary-school list prepared by the high-school teachers. From another point of view, however, these data present a different picture. The seven dates represent more than 25 per cent of the twenty-six dates that both the elementary-school teachers and the high-school teachers are teaching as the most important dates without taking into account the teaching done in the other school division. Is such overlapping justifiable, desirable, or even necessary? The situation appears even more serious when consideration is given to the fifty-two dates most frequently mentioned. Although thirty-

seven dates are common to the two elementary-school lists, there are thirty dates, or nearly 60 per cent of the list, which both the elementary-school teachers and the high-school teachers include among the first fifty-two. Such overlapping appears to be serious, particularly since fifty is not an unusually large number of dates to be learned in United States history in the elementary school.

From the point of view of omissions and assumed abilities, the situation also appears serious. Although the elementary-school teachers and the high-school teachers agree on thirty-seven dates, there are fifteen of the fifty-two dates, or nearly 30 per cent, which the high-school teachers assume have been learned in the elementary school but which are not included by the elementary-school teachers among their primary objectives. However, certain of these dates are included among the first fifty-two of the secondary-school list, so that actually only seven dates (1000, 1498, 1513, 1608, 1630, 1732, and 1849) are completely omitted.

Before these facts are given too much weight, the data should be considered from another point of view. The question arises as to the amount of agreement among the teachers within either group. It is remarkable how little agreement there is. Only six dates (1492, 1776, 1803, 1607, 1812, and 1620) are agreed on by 75 per cent or more of the elementary-school teachers, and only twenty by 50 per cent or more of these teachers. Only four dates (1492, 1776, 1620, and 1607) are agreed on by 75 per cent or more of the high-school teachers as dates to be taught in the elementary school, and only ten by 50 per cent or more of these teachers. Only six dates (1492, 1607, 1620, 1775, 1776, and 1789) are agreed on by 50 per cent or more of both the elementary-school teachers and the high-school teachers.

Such lack of unanimity of opinion must make for gross overlapping, large gaps, and a general lack of articulation. However, this appears little more serious than the lack of agreement among the high-school teachers as to the dates to be learned in the secondary school. Only one date (1453) is agreed on by as many as 50 per cent of these teachers as a date to be learned in a high-school course in American history.

Table II presents the situation with respect to the names of

persons. Three outstanding facts are to be noted in this table. First, the number of names appearing among the first twenty-five names, the second twenty-five, and the first fifty in the two elementary-school lists prepared by the elementary-school teachers and the high-school teachers is approximately the same as in the corresponding lists of dates. Second, it is a matter of serious concern that the

TABLE II*

NUMBER OF NAMES COMMON TO THE FIFTY NAMES MOST FREQUENTLY MENTIONED BY THE ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND BY THE HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND THE FIFTY NAMES OF HIGHEST RANK IN WASHBURNE'S LIST†

	163 Elementary- School Teachers	128 High- School Teachers (Elementary- School List)	128 High- School Teachers (Secondary- School List)
First twenty-five names:			
128 high-school teachers (elementary-school list)	15
128 high-school teachers (secondary-school list)	0	0
Washburne's list	9	8	5
Second twenty-five names:			
128 high-school teachers (elementary-school list)	6
128 high-school teachers (secondary-school list)	1	0
Washburne's list	4	3	4
First fifty names:			
128 high-school teachers (elementary-school list)	34
128 high-school teachers (secondary-school list)	1	0
Washburne's list	14	13	16

* This table is to be read as follows: Of the twenty-five names most frequently mentioned by 163 elementary-school teachers as objectives of United States history in the elementary school, fifteen are among the twenty-five most frequently mentioned by 128 high-school teachers as objectives of United States history in the elementary school; none is among the twenty-five names most frequently mentioned as objectives of United States history in the secondary school; and nine are among the twenty-five names of highest rank in Washburne's list based on an analysis of periodicals.

† Carleton W. Washburne, "Basic Facts Needed in History and Geography: A Statistical Investigation," *The Social Studies in the Elementary and Secondary School*, pp. 216-33. The Twenty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1923. Washburne's list includes a great variety of persons, places, and events relating to the history of the entire world. The fifty persons of highest rank having an intimate relation to American history were selected for use in making comparisons. Most of the persons were mentioned by either the elementary-school teachers or the high-school teachers although a few, such as John D. Rockefeller and Newton D. Baker, are not included in any of the other three lists.

high-school teachers expect sixteen names to be learned in the elementary school for which the elementary-school teachers assume no responsibility. Such a lack of agreement must surely make for much inefficiency. Third, there is, however, almost no overlapping between the names that the elementary-school teachers think should be taught in the elementary school and those that the high-school teachers think should be taught in the secondary school. Furthermore, there is decidedly more agreement among both the elemen-

tary-school teachers and the high-school teachers with regard to names of persons than with regard to dates. Sixteen names (Abraham Lincoln, George Washington, Ulysses S. Grant, Thomas Jefferson, Robert E. Lee, Christopher Columbus, Woodrow Wilson, Theodore Roosevelt, Benjamin Franklin, Henry Clay, Stephen A. Douglas, Daniel Webster, Eli Whitney, John J. Pershing, Robert Fulton, and Andrew Jackson) are agreed on by 75 per cent or more of the 163 elementary-school teachers, and twenty-nine by 50 per cent or more of these teachers. Thirty-seven names are agreed on by 75 per cent or more of the 128 high-school teachers as names to be taught in the elementary school, and all fifty names are agreed on by more than 50 per cent of these teachers. Much the same situation prevails with respect to the names to be taught in the secondary school; more than 50 per cent of the high-school teachers agree on all fifty names.

Further evidence of the extent to which the teachers are in agreement as to the dates and the names of persons to be taught in United States history may be obtained by computing certain coefficients of correlation. The fifty-two dates and the fifty names mentioned most frequently by the elementary-school teachers were ranked according to the data received from the high-school teachers. The following correlations were then computed for both the dates and the names: (1) the elementary-school teachers' elementary-school list and the high-school teachers' elementary-school list, (2) the elementary-school teachers' elementary-school list and the high-school teachers' secondary-school list, and (3) the high-school teachers' elementary-school list and the high-school teachers' secondary-school list. The resulting coefficients for the dates are .70, .05, and -.30, respectively; for the names, .49, -.23, and -.73, respectively. These results confirm conclusions apparent in the preceding discussion, namely, that the elementary-school teachers and the high-school teachers are more in agreement with each other on the dates than on the names to be taught in United States history in the elementary school; but, on the other hand, there is a greater difference between the elementary-school list of names and the secondary-school list of names than between the corresponding lists of dates

whether they are selected by the elementary-school teachers and the high-school teachers or by the high-school teachers alone.

TABLE III

NAMES COMMON TO TWO OF THREE LISTS OF FIFTY NAMES EACH: ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS' LIST, HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS' ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL LIST, AND WASHBURNE'S LIST

Name	Elementary-School Teachers' List	High-School Teachers' Elementary-School List	Washburne's List
Adams, John	X	X	
Arnold, Benedict	X	X	
Cabot, John	X	X	
Clark, George Rogers	X	X	
Clay, Henry	X	X	
Columbus, Christopher	X	X	
Coolidge, Calvin	X	X	
Davis, Jefferson	X	X	
De Soto, Ferdinand	X	X	
Dewey, Admiral George	X	X	X
Edison, Thomas A.	X	X	X
Franklin, Benjamin	X	X	X
Fulton, Robert	X	X	
Grant, Ulysses S.	X	X	X
Hamilton, Alexander	X	X	
Henry, Patrick	X	X	
Jackson, Andrew	X	X	
Jefferson, Thomas	X	X	X
Jones, John Paul	X	X	
Lafayette, Marquis de	X	X	X
La Salle, Robert de	X	X	
Lee, Robert E.	X	X	X
Lincoln, Abraham	X	X	X
Longfellow, Henry W.	X	X	X
McKinley, William	X	X	X
Magellan, Ferdinand	X	X	
Monroe, James	X	X	
Penn, William	X	X	
Pershing, John J.	X	X	X
Raleigh, Sir Walter	X	X	
Roosevelt, Theodore	X	X	X
Smith, Captain John	X	X	
Taft, William Howard	X	X	X
Washington, George	X	X	X
Webster, Daniel	X	X	
Whitney, Eli	X	X	
Wilson, Woodrow	X	X	X

The objectives held by teachers and the abilities that teachers assume pupils to possess are prime factors in determining the efficiency of the educational process, especially those aspects of the process which involve the articulation of the several school divisions.

In order to compare the objectives held by the teachers involved in this study and objectives determined by a less subjective procedure, data are included in Table II relative to the number of names common to the lists prepared from the data furnished by the teachers and a similar list abstracted from data obtained in an investigation conducted by Washburne. This table makes it apparent that there is less agreement between Washburne's list and any one of the other three lists than there is between the two elementary-school lists prepared by the elementary-school teachers and the high-school teachers. Wherein does this lack of agreement lie? Are the names included by Washburne and omitted by the teachers of such importance that it would be a grave error to omit them from the elementary-school and the high-school United States history courses? On the other hand, is Washburne's list sufficient; that is, can the omission from the history course of names listed by the teachers but not appearing in Washburne's list be justified?

In order to provide a more adequate basis on which to discuss these questions, Table III and two lists of names are presented. Table III contains thirty-seven names, of which only fifteen appear in Washburne's list. Thus, there are twenty-two names on which the elementary-school teachers and the high-school teachers agree but which do not appear in Washburne's list. Are these names unimportant? Or are they less important than some names which appear more frequently in current literature as ascertained by Washburne? Before these questions are considered, attention may be given to the following list of sixteen names common to Washburne's list and the secondary-school list prepared on the basis of the judgment of the high-school teachers. These names may be readily accepted as suitable secondary-school objectives.

NAMES COMMON TO HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS' SECONDARY-SCHOOL
LIST AND WASHBURNE'S LIST

- | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. Addams, Jane | 9. Hughes, Charles E. |
| 2. Cannon, Joseph G. | 10. La Follette, Robert M. |
| 3. Carnegie, Andrew | 11. Lloyd-George, David |
| 4. Carranza, Venustiano | 12. Lodge, Henry Cabot |
| 5. Charles II of England | 13. McAdoo, William G. |
| 6. Clemenceau, Georges | 14. Morgan, J. P. |
| 7. Gompers, Samuel | 15. Root, Elihu |
| 8. Hindenberg, Marshal | 16. Whitman, Walt |

The following list contains the nineteen remaining names in Washburne's list.

NAMES APPEARING IN WASHBURNE'S LIST BUT NOT
IN THE OTHER THREE LISTS

- | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Baker, Newton D. | 11. Hawthorne, Nathaniel |
| 2. Bonaparte, Napoleon | 12. Hoover, Herbert |
| 3. Bryan, William Jennings | 13. Irving, Washington |
| 4. Cleveland, Grover | 14. James, Henry |
| 5. Daniels, Josephus | 15. Kitchener, Lord |
| 6. Eliot, Charles W. | 16. Lowell, James Russell |
| 7. Elizabeth, Queen | 17. Rockefeller, John D. |
| 8. Emerson, Ralph Waldo | 18. Twain, Mark |
| 9. Foch, Marshal | 19. Wilhelm II, Kaiser |
| 10. Harriman, Edward H. | |

This list is much more similar in general character to the secondary-school list than to the elementary-school lists. The names are those with which the pupil comes in contact when he approaches United States history from a point of view more mature than that of an elementary-school pupil. There is a suggestion of "problems of democracy" and "current events" in these names. For the purpose of gaining a comprehension of the broad sweep of American history, most of these names do not compare with the names of Christopher Columbus, George Rogers Clark, Jefferson Davis, Robert Fulton, Alexander Hamilton, Andrew Jackson, and several others of the twenty-two agreed on by the elementary-school teachers and the high-school teachers but not appearing in Washburne's list.

Washburne's list rather than the lists of the teachers suffers by comparison, for one is forced to consider whether Washburne's list is a list of names to be omitted from the school course as names that will become sufficiently familiar to the normal individual through his general reading. Thus, one is reminded of two of Bobbitt's fundamental tenets:

The curriculum of the schools will aim at those objectives that are not sufficiently attained as a result of the general undirected experience.¹

The curriculum of the directed training is to be discovered in the shortcomings of individuals after they have had all that can be given by the undirected training.²

Some violence may have been done Washburne's study by selecting only fifty names from United States history; yet one wonders

¹ Franklin Bobbitt, *The Curriculum*, p. 44. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918.

² *Ibid.*, p. 45.

how he can say that he has "discovered by objective study the relative importance of outstanding persons, places, and events"¹ when such names as Newton D. Baker and Josephus Daniels displace the names of Christopher Columbus and Andrew Jackson. Of course, many such names appear in Washburne's complete list, but, nevertheless, there seems to be some question as to the adequacy of a course so constructed as almost "to avoid even the mention of persons or places that are not on our [Washburne's] original list."² There must be unpardonable gaps or excessive wealth of detail with unjustifiable emphasis in order to give a view of history comprehensive enough to realize Washburne's expressed purposes: "to help children see the action of cause and effect in their study of the social sciences" and "to help them to realize the interdependence of man on man—the fundamental unity of the human race."³

From the data presented in the first part of this article, it is apparent that there is a gross lack of agreement between elementary-school teachers and high-school teachers of United States history as to the date and name objectives. However, the two groups of teachers are in much greater agreement with each other than with the results of at least one "objective" determination of such objectives. No doubt this is to be expected in view of the similarity of training of all teachers. However, a critical comparison of the objectives held by teachers and the objectives discovered by an analysis of periodicals reveals many inadequacies in the latter.

Inasmuch as Washburne's list was compiled for the purposes of curriculum-making, the question naturally arises as to the adequacy for curriculum construction of objectives obtained from a consensus of teachers' judgments and from more "objective" investigations. Certain apparent excellencies and imperfections are to be seen in the lists of objectives obtained by either of these procedures. On the other hand, the lists supplement each other and together form a better basis for curriculum construction than does either alone. This fact helps to confirm the usually accepted principle that the curriculum-maker should employ data secured by means of more than one technique.

¹ Carleton W. Washburne, "Building a Fact Course in History and Geography," *The Social Studies in the Elementary and Secondary School*, p. 99. The Twenty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1923.

² *Ibid.*, p. 101.

³ *Ibid.*

SCIENTIFIC SUPERVISION AND CURRICULUM-BUILDING

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Secondary education as it is known today has developed within the memory of living men. There were only 321 high schools in the United States in 1860, and, of these, more than one-half were in three states—Massachusetts, New York, and Ohio. The United States Bureau of Education reported 2,771 high schools in 1890. In the next thirty-five years this number increased to 21,700. In 1890 there were slightly more than two hundred thousand high-school pupils; in 1925, nearly four million. In 1890 there were 3.4 high-school pupils among every thousand persons; in 1925, 40. High schools have multiplied in the United States at the rate of approximately one a day since 1890. Astounding as these figures are, the increase in school population is not the most significant change in secondary education.

The report of the Committee of Ten, published in 1893, marks a distinct epoch in secondary education. At the time, it embodied the latest philosophy in secondary education. This report recommended four curriculums—the classical, the Latin scientific, the modern language, and the English. All were organized on the basis of subject matter, and the difference between them lay in the amount of time devoted to the study of foreign languages. The amount was prescribed in each case.

A comparison of this report with any modern report on secondary-school practices shows how great a change has taken place in the philosophy of secondary education. Instead of four, there are now a score or more of well-defined curriculums, organized not on the basis of subject matter but on the basis of pupil needs. There is still a college-preparatory curriculum, but the amount of foreign language varies from a minimum of two years of one foreign language to a maximum of four years of one foreign language and three

years of another. In addition, there are special curriculums to meet the needs of pupils in clerical and secretarial work, agriculture, journalism, fine and applied arts, home-making, etc. The rapid increase in the number of curriculums to meet pupils' needs is not, however, the most significant change in secondary education since 1890.

Any group of secondary-school pupils twenty years ago was a highly homogeneous group. There was little choice of subject matter within any curriculum. As many as 40 per cent of the pupils were failed, and a failure of 25 per cent was common. Furthermore, the pupils were failed to "maintain the standards." Any high-school principal with twenty years of experience will readily recall the battle of the standards which was waged when the rapid increase in numbers began.

The median ability index of the pupils in the Trenton Senior High School in 1925 was 96.7. The median of the lowest fourth was 83.6; of the highest fourth, 110.6. The range was from 40 to 147. Here lies the most significant change in secondary education in recent times, and here the first cue in any plan of reorganization must be found.

In the opinion of the writer, high-school principals and teachers have not received the help either from boards of education or from experts in secondary education which they deserve in the turmoil of reorganization. It is only within the last few years that even the best school systems have organized research departments to aid in the program of reorganization, and in most cases really helpful fact-finding agencies are still conspicuous by their absence.

Under these conditions constructive supervision and scientific curriculum-building have been difficult if not impossible. Constructive supervision implies that we know what we are doing as well as what we should do.

Because of the almost daily change in the numbers, needs, and capacities of the school population, life has been interesting during the last ten years for the high-school principal who has tried to keep himself informed as to how well his school is functioning. In any assigned school task today "well" is a relative term, varying with the pupil according to his capacity and varying with the teacher according to the median ability of her group.

The beginning of scientific supervision lies in scientific organization, and the following seem to be fundamental elements in such an organization.

1. Education is far from being a manufacturing process, but a strong analogy can be drawn between the organization of a metropolitan high school and the organization of industry. Minnesota spring wheat is different from Kansas winter wheat. Each is graded according to its quality, and the miller never guesses that he may be grinding No. 1 Northern. The textile manufacturer knows the quality of the raw material which he is weaving into his product. There is still much to be learned about scholastic-aptitude testing, but enough is known about the matter to make the use of aptitude tests imperative in every high school. There should be on record some kind of ability index for every pupil, and this not only should be on file in the principal's office but should function actively in the classroom.

2. The objectives of the courses of study must be more clearly defined so that there may be better understanding of the work to be accomplished not only among the teachers themselves but also between the teachers and the supervisor. Too many courses of study are general treatises in subject matter rather than specific directions for a program of work for pupils and teacher, and a differential statement of standards to be attained. At least a brief outline of the course of study should be in the hands of every pupil. Most pupils and many teachers today see only the trees and not the forest in the course of study.

Recognition of the fact that in a modern high school there are two kinds of standards will help to simplify the plan of organization.

a) In all required subjects standards are determined by conditions within the group. This is equivalent to saying that there can be no uniform courses of study and no uniform standards in such subjects. The range will be as wide as the range of abilities. Scientific organization here forces the task not only of forming slow and fast groups in the same course of study but of organizing different courses of study in both content and method to fit the range of abilities. In this class of subjects are English and required courses in science and social studies.

b) In all subjects with a vocational content standards are determined by conditions external to the group. The course of study in stenography cannot be adjusted to the group. The group must adjust itself to the standards set by the business world. Distinct college-preparatory subjects, such as intermediate algebra, are also in this class.

3. The third condition which underlies scientific supervision is that pupil ratings must be reliable. There can be no attempt at scientific evaluation until the same quality of work will receive approximately the same rating regardless of who the pupil or the teacher may be. Teacher and supervisor will agree most readily to a plan for improving instruction when they are in common accord as to the worth of the present program of instruction. No plan for evaluating any teacher's work will be satisfactory to the teacher if it disregards the evidence of reliable pupil ratings.

When reliable pupil ratings in definite courses of study can be tabulated at different ability levels, data will be revealed which will be helpful not only in improving the condition of the pupil in the present situation but also, in the broader field of curriculum reorganization, in adjusting the pupil to a new situation.

School statistics assume an entirely different appearance when they are tabulated in this way. In February, 1928, the distribution of pupil ratings in the Trenton Senior High School was as follows: E, 10 per cent; D, 24 per cent; C, 35 per cent; B, 22 per cent; and A, 9 per cent. While the percentage of failures was high enough to warrant attention, the situation portrayed by this distribution of ratings would hardly be viewed with alarm in the office of the average high-school principal. These statistics assume an entirely different appearance when they are rearranged so as to divide the school into three groups—a large middle group, a small high group, and a small low group. Such a rearrangement will not localize all the difficulty, but it will at least enable a school to make an intelligent beginning in the program of reorganization.

Bearing in mind that standards are of two kinds, one could reasonably draw the conclusion that the maladjustment indicated by Table I is due to two causes, namely, that some pupils elected courses to which they were not adapted and that other pupils were forced into required courses which were not adapted to them.

A study of the ratings in two typical courses redistributed at different ability levels is illuminating (Table II).

We have been extremely optimistic about the virtues of democracy. This optimism has given expression to a common conception that in the United States anyone can do anything. This point of view has also found expression in our educational theory. Some of

TABLE I
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ACADEMIC RATINGS

ABILITY RANGE	PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOL ENROLMENT	RATINGS				
		E	D	C	B	A
69.5 or lower.....	15	29	39	24	7	1
70-109.5.....	65	10	27	35	21	7
110 or higher.....	20	4	12	30	30	24

TABLE II
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RATINGS IN TWO ELECTIVE SUBJECTS

ABILITY RANGE	NUMBER OF PUPILS	RATINGS				
		E	D	C	B	A
Stenography:						
59.5 or lower.....	9	33	44	22	0	0
60-79.5.....	36	14	31	44	11	0
80-99.5.....	56	2	18	36	34	11
100-119.5.....	21	0	19	24	33	24
120 or higher.....	6	0	0	33	0	67
Intermediate algebra:						
59.5 or lower.....	2	0	100	0	0	0
60-79.5.....	37	11	30	27	27	5
80-99.5.....	75	13	21	37	19	9
100-119.5.....	83	2	14	33	22	29
120 or higher.....	35	3	3	23	34	37

us say with great self-satisfaction that in the United States secondary education is not selective. Nothing is needed in our educational theory today quite so much as a clear recognition of the selective principle in secondary education.

A program of reorganization to improve the situation shown in stenography and intermediate algebra clearly begins in the choice of different curriculums by most of the pupils with ability indexes below 80, and in intermediate algebra it will include a large percentage of the pupils with ability indexes between 80 and 100.

English is a required subject, in which the standard is determined by the abilities of the pupils. In any high school today, because of the wide range of abilities, this means not one course of study and one standard but different courses of study with corresponding standards. Probably no subject in the entire curriculum is more emphatically in need of reorganization than is English. If it is true that pupils in the highest fourth in the tenth grade can do better work in English, judged by any standard, than can pupils in the lowest fourth in the twelfth grade, it follows that courses of

TABLE III
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RATINGS IN A REQUIRED SUBJECT

ABILITY RANGE	NUMBER OF PUPILS	RATINGS				
		E	D	C	B	A
Junior English (regular course):						
50.5 or lower.....	0	0	0	0	0	0
60-79.5.....	37	5	27	35	30	3
80-99.5.....	96	3	11	44	36	5
100-119.5.....	90	0	10	23	53	13
120 or higher.....	37	3	5	5	49	38
Junior English (special course):						
50.5 or lower.....	25	32	44	16	8	0
60-79.5.....	98	20	34	29	15	2
80-99.5.....	132	14	42	22	20	2
100-119.5.....	59	7	19	47	17	10
120 or higher.....	17	6	6	41	35	12

study in English graded according to the number of years in school are impossible. Nothing is holding back the reorganization of courses in English today more than the continued effort of English teachers to pour their new subject matter into the old molds of tenth-, eleventh-, and twelfth-grade English.

Table III shows the results of an attempt at a reorganized English course. Pupils whose past records in English were not good were segregated and were given a course of study planned especially for them. It was the contention of the English teachers that the weakness of these pupils in composition was due to a lack of knowledge of the fundamentals of English grammar. A course in English grammar was therefore added which any pupil in the highest fourth in the ninth year could have mastered. The entire course was well or-

ganized and was well taught, but the results were not very reassuring.

A study of the distributed ratings in the two English courses reveals significant facts. It is evident that the regular English course was well within the ability of the pupils enrolled in it. The number of failures is almost negligible, only six in 260. The special course was not so successful. Segregating pupils whose work in English is poor is practically equivalent to segregating them on the basis of their reading ability, because pupils with good reading ability and poor English records are probably not working to capacity. Nothing is gained by giving such pupils an elementary course. An analysis of the results shows that for the large majority of the pupils this course did not function at all. Mastery of the course evidently demanded an ability index of 100. According to the ratings of the pupils in the regular course, this course functions well at the ability level of 100. In other words, the special course did not begin to function until an ability level was reached at which the course was not needed. Early discovery of this fact in no way tells the English teachers what the special group can master, but it saves valuable time in indicating what the pupils cannot do.

In conclusion, in the reconstruction of courses of study it is not sufficient that the courses be planned according to the pupils' needs as judged by the teachers. There must be also a fact-finding organization which will show promptly how well the courses are operating at different ability levels. Such an organization involves (1) a scholastic-aptitude index for every pupil, (2) definite courses of study, and (3) reliable academic ratings.

METHODS EMPLOYED TO STIMULATE INTERESTS IN READING. II

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Attention was directed in the first article of this series to the fact that the teachers, school librarians, and public librarians reporting tended in some instances to overlook their common practices in their endeavor to report unusual, interesting, and no doubt very successful methods. This tendency naturally limits the value of the data supplied. However, the reports as received indicate to some extent the emphasis placed on the different methods by the teachers and librarians. Table II classifies the methods reported with reference to their purposes. A study of this table indicates clearly that the teachers and librarians gave major emphasis to the same purpose, namely, stimulating children to read. On the other hand, the three classes of workers were not alike in emphasizing the other two purposes. The teachers reported a larger range of methods for making interests permanent than for elevating tastes. The reverse is true in the case of the public librarians. The school librarians placed practically the same emphasis on the second and third purposes.

The data raise some pertinent questions. Are teachers and librarians giving undue emphasis to stimulating children to read? Are methods for stimulating interests in reading better understood by educators generally than are methods for elevating tastes and for making interests in reading permanent? Is it more difficult to elevate tastes and to make interests in reading permanent? If so, what are the difficulties?

The answers to these questions are not to be found in the data secured in this study. An earlier study¹ made by the writer in Mil-

¹ William F. Rasche, *The Reading Interests of Young Workers*. Vocational Education Monograph Number 9. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Milwaukee Vocational School, 1925.

waukee in 1925 brought out the fact that, of 7,065 working boys and girls ranging from fourteen to eighteen years of age, 44 per cent did not use the public library, 29 per cent did not read books, 28 per cent did not read magazines, and 4 per cent did not even read newspapers. Other studies in large centers have revealed similar conditions; they show, as did the Milwaukee investigation, that a very large part of the juvenile population tends to become newspaper readers without acquiring any consistent and systematic interest in books or magazines.

Furthermore, the Milwaukee investigation showed that there are readers whose interest in books and magazines gradually de-

TABLE II

DISTRIBUTION OF MASTER METHODS EMPLOYED BY TEACHERS, SCHOOL LIBRARIANS,
AND PUBLIC LIBRARIANS ACCORDING TO PURPOSE

Purpose	Teachers	School Librarians	Public Librarians
To stimulate interests.....	69	51	42
To elevate tastes.....	34	33	26
To make interests permanent.....	41	32	18

clines, as judged by the reading interests of different age groups. Thus, for example, 40 per cent of the older boys did not read books, while only 30 per cent of the younger boys did not read books. This difference is undoubtedly due to several environmental causes, against which it is difficult for any previously established interest to hold out unless it is firmly rooted.

These facts force upon our attention at least two questions. The first of these is the question whether present practice is sufficiently energetic and effective in developing permanent interests, and the second is the practical question of how to combat competing interests which seem to displace the reading interest as the child grows older. We must learn how to accomplish more in making reading interests permanent during the time children are in school so that reading habits shall be so firmly established by the time children leave school that the interest in reading will not be forsaken for new interests that come with greater freedom and release from educational supervision.

Undoubtedly more highly specialized techniques are required to elevate and make permanent interests in reading than are necessary for stimulation alone. More is involved in developing a continuous interest than is required in getting an initial response. The non-readers in most cases have been exposed to stimulating appeals of one type or another and have browsed among books only to neglect them later. It is very probable that at the critical time when children respond to some stimulating effort skill is required in adapting the reading material supplied to each individual's peculiar needs. If the initial contacts of a child with books or magazines are unsatisfactory or if a series of contacts prove unsuccessful because the reading is not suited to the child's capacity, needs, and likes, it is but natural that such experiences should tend to separate him from the very material with which teachers and librarians would have him live. It is clear, then, that at this point we face the necessity of developing many techniques or methods which will enable us to diagnose accurately the needs of children along individual lines in order to insure both increased interest and permanence of interest.

A more detailed examination of the methods employed by the teachers to stimulate interests in reading, to elevate tastes in reading, and to make reading interests permanent brings out the use that was made of the reported methods at all levels of school progress. Table III shows the methods that were used in (1) the primary grades, (2) the elementary grades, (3) the junior high school, and (4) the senior high school. Grades I, II, and III have been classified as the primary grades; Grades IV, V, and VI, as the elementary grades; Grades VII, VIII, and IX, as the junior high school; and Grades X, XI, and XII, as the senior high school.

It is significant that thirty-nine of the eighty-three methods listed in Table III were being used at all school levels.

The reader will probably note as he studies Table III that many methods that were undoubtedly used at all school levels were not reported by teachers at some of the levels. Thus, Method 25, "Arranging for circulation of reading matter," was reported by teachers teaching Grades IV-IX, inclusive, but not by those teaching in the primary grades and in the senior high school. No one can infer from this that primary teachers and senior high school teachers do not

TABLE III

MASTER METHODS EMPLOYED BY TEACHERS IN PRIMARY GRADES, ELEMENTARY GRADES, JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL, AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL TO STIMULATE INTERESTS IN READING, TO ELEVATE TASTES IN READING, AND TO MAKE READING INTERESTS PERMANENT

Master Method	Primary Grades	Ele- mentary Grades	Junior High School	Senior High School
1. Ability grouping, Arranging for.....		X	X	
2. Advertisements, Having pupils study.....		X	X	
*3. Advertising devices, Using.....	X	X	X	X
5. Analyses of good books, Making reading.....	X	X	X	X
*6. Atmosphere, Creating wholesome.....	X	X	X	X
7. Attitude, Developing proper.....		X	X	
8. Authors, Having pupils study.....	X	X	X	X
10. Beautiful passages, Having pupils note.....		X	X	X
14. Booklets, Having pupils prepare.....	X	X	X	
15. Books, Having pupils bring.....	X	X	X	X
*16. Browsing corner, Providing a.....	X	X	X	X
*17. Bulletin board, Using the.....	X	X	X	X
18. Cartoons, Having pupils interpret.....		X	X	
*19. Catalogue cards, Preparing and using.....	X	X	X	X
20. Characters, Having pupils study.....	X	X	X	
21. Charts, Preparing and having pupils prepare.....	X	X	X	
23. Children's criticisms, Inviting.....		X	X	X
*24. Choice, Allowing pupils freedom of.....	X	X	X	X
*25. Circulation of reading matter, Arranging for.....		X	X	
27. Classroom libraries, Providing.....	X	X	X	X
28. Classroom magazines and newspapers, Providing.....	X	X	X	X
29. Clippings, Asking pupils to bring.....	X	X	X	X
*31. Clubs, Encouraging reading.....	X	X	X	X
32. Commendations, Making deserved.....	X	X	X	
33. Comparative studies, Having pupils make.....	X	X	X	X
*34. Conferences, Capitalizing teacher-pupil.....		X	X	X
*35. Contests, Organizing.....	X	X	X	X
*36. Correlations with school subjects, Requiring.....	X	X	X	X
*37. Credit, Giving reading.....	X	X	X	X
*38. Current events, Assigning studies in.....	X	X	X	
39. Debates, Encouraging.....		X	X	X
40. Diagnoses of pupils' interests, Making.....	X	X	X	
41. Directions, Having pupils carry out, as found in printed instructions.....	X	X	X	
*42. Discussions, Stimulating.....	X	X	X	X
*43. Displays of books and magazines, Preparing.....	X	X	X	
44. Dramatizations, Assigning.....	X	X	X	X
45. Exercises, Arranging assembly and classroom.....	X	X	X	X
*47. Games, Having pupils play.....	X	X	X	
48. Illustrations, Having pupils study.....	X	X	X	X
*50. Interest, Stepping up.....	X	X	X	X
52. Library cards, Having pupils get.....	X	X	X	
*54. Lists, Preparing book.....	X	X	X	X
55. Loans of books and magazines, Making personal.....	X	X	X	
56. Local papers, Putting school news in.....	X		X	
60. Magazine sections, Featuring special.....		X	X	
61. Maps, Preparing literature.....	X	X	X	
62. Mechanics of reading, Using good methods in the.....	X	X	X	
63. Motivation, Supplying appropriate.....	X	X	X	X

TABLE III—Continued

Master Method	Primary Grades	Elementary Grades	Junior High School	Senior High School
64. Moving pictures based on good literature, Recommending.....	X	X	X
65. Objects, Using, as illustrative material.....	X	X
66. Original sources, Requiring pupils to read from..	X	X	X
*68. Parental co-operation, Inviting.....	X	X
*69. Partial reading, Doing.....	X	X	X	X
70. Personal libraries, Encouraging pupils to build..	X	X
*71. Pictures, Using.....	X	X	X	X
72. Pleasure, Encouraging pupils to read for.....	X	X	X
73. Poetry, Having pupils read.....	X	X	X	X
*74. Posters, Using.....	X	X	X
75. Progress charts, Putting individual reading records on.....	X	X	X	X
76. Projects based on reading, Having pupils develop..	X	X	X
77. Public library, Encouraging pupils to use the....	X	X	X	X
*78. Public-library school collections, Circulating....	X	X	X
79. Puzzles, Having pupils solve.....	X
*80. Qualified teachers, Appointing only.....	X	X	X
82. Reading materials, Providing good.....	X	X	X	X
83. Reading periods, Allowing.....	X	X	X	X
84. Readings, Giving selected, to pupils.....	X	X	X	X
*86. Reports, Having pupils prepare.....	X	X	X	X
87. Required readings, Assigning.....	X	X	X
*88. Reviews, Having pupils read and prepare.....	X
89. Salesmanship, Having pupils engage in mock.....	X	X	X
90. School papers, Using, to stimulate interests.....	X
*92. Selections of reading materials for the library, Making appropriate.....	X	X	X
95. Slides and films, Showing literary.....	X	X	X
*100. Story-telling periods, Programming.....	X	X	X	X
101. Subscriptions for desirable periodicals, Encouraging.....	X	X
*102. Substitutions, Making desirable.....	X	X	X	X
*103. Suggestions and recommendations, Making.....	X	X	X	X
*104. Talks by librarians or others, Arranging for....	X	X	X	X
*106. Tours and visits, Taking pupils on real or imaginary.....	X	X	X
107. Undesirable reading, Discouraging.....	X
*108. Use of reading materials and libraries, Teaching proper.....	X	X	X	X
109. Weeks, Programming literary.....	X	X	X

circulate books. The table shows that the teachers tended to report the methods which they were stressing most; as a result, they failed to report some of the methods which they used frequently. The list as given shows the methods that the teachers considered the most impressive.

The reader who desires to know which methods were used in

common by the teachers, school librarians, and public librarians can secure this information by referring to Table III and noting the methods that are marked with asterisks. These methods were used by all three types of educators; they constitute 30 per cent of all the methods reported. It is to be noted that to a very large extent each type of worker used methods different from those employed by the other two types of workers. The reports showed further that the teachers employed a more diversified range of methods than did the school or public librarians and that the public librarians used a more restricted range than did the school librarians.

The school librarians hold a middle position. This is to be expected since school librarians function both as teachers and as librarians. They reported sixty-five different methods for all purposes; the teachers reported eighty-three methods, and the public librarians fifty-three. Eleven of the methods reported by the school librarians were exclusively employed by them. Fifteen methods were used by both school librarians and teachers but were not used by public librarians. Six methods were used by both school librarians and public librarians but were not used by teachers. The remaining thirty-three methods, or approximately one-half of all the methods employed by the school librarians, are a part of the techniques common to all three classes of workers.

While the three types of workers share the responsibility for stimulating, improving, and making permanent the interests in reading of young people, it is clear that the initial burden of stimulating and arousing young readers falls primarily on teachers and that the later task of making rich stores of worth-while literature available is chiefly the function of librarians. This fact does not warrant the conclusion that librarians are therefore free of all responsibility for stimulating and arousing interests in reading but rather that the primary function of the teacher has been largely a secondary function of the librarian and that the primary function of the librarian has been a secondary function of the teacher. This is perhaps more readily understood when it is remembered that schools are primarily places of instruction and libraries are storehouses of reading materials, where books and other types of literature are distributed to readers.

Although the reports showed clearly this distinction in the character of the primary service furnished by schools and public libraries, they showed in an equally clear way a new trend in the conception of the functions of public libraries. An increasing interest in educational activities on the part of librarians is to be noted. The more progressive librarians are not satisfied with merely supplying the public with reading materials. In some cities, both large and small, they are very aggressively using all legitimate means to reach people who would never avail themselves of the facilities offered except for the stimulation provided. These librarians conceive their task to be that of interesting all people, both young and old, in wholesome and profitable reading. Where the school does the initial work well, their task is merely to supplement effort. Where the school has failed or where it has never had an opportunity to serve, their task is to arouse and stimulate interests in reading. We are, in fact, witnessing today a transition from a narrower to a broader conception of library service, a service which regards stimulating non-readers as important a function as that of providing and circulating reading materials.

One caution in interpreting the data should be considered by the reader. The fact that the teachers reported more methods than did the school librarians and the public librarians does not justify the conclusion that the teachers were more diligent in developing useful methods than were the librarians. Neither does the fact that the school librarians reported more methods than did the public librarians justify the conclusion that the school librarians were more diligent than were the public librarians. The number of methods reported by the different types of workers seems to warrant only the conclusion that the number of methods employed by each was determined not so much by diligence in discovering new methods as by the distinctive character of the work each type of worker was called upon to do. The data show clearly that in each of the three spheres of activity methods were employed that were not employed elsewhere, thus supporting the conclusion that the number of methods was dictated by the uses to which they were to be put. This conclusion is further substantiated by the fact that no one type of

worker used all the methods reported, there being twenty-seven that the teachers did not report, forty-five that the school librarians did not report, and fifty-seven that the public librarians did not report.

Notwithstanding these facts and a limitation of this study, namely, that all methods in use were not reported, there is need of more specialized methods to be used by teachers and librarians alike in elevating tastes and in making interests in reading permanent. Furthermore, as has been pointed out, all possibilities have not been exhausted even in the matter of stimulation. There is, therefore, need for renewed activity on the part of both teachers and librarians in carrying on more careful studies that will result in making their work more effective than it is at present.

[To be continued]

WHY HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS ATTEND SUMMER SCHOOL

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It is commonly believed that the high-school pupils who attend summer school are, to a large extent, those who have failed in some of their studies during the regular school year and that they are therefore, as a group, scholastically inferior to the pupils who attend school during the year. In order to obtain data relating to this question, a study was undertaken in the high schools conducted during the summer of 1928 by two middle-western universities. Responses were obtained concerning 420 cases of subject enrolment.

In each class the pupil was asked to state, in writing, his reason for taking the course in which he was enrolled. He was urged to answer truthfully and was assured that a truthful answer would in no way affect his mark in the course but would, on the other hand, assist the principal in being of greater service. In every case there was evidence that the matter was taken seriously.

Table I shows the nineteen reasons given by the pupils for taking summer-school work and the frequency of occurrence of each reason.

Of the 420 responses, 116, or 27.6 per cent, indicate that the reason for taking summer-school work was to complete the four years of high-school work in less than four years. Attention is called to the variety of reasons. Some are most praiseworthy—for example, Reasons 1, 3, 5, 8, and 10; others indicate necessity—for example, Reasons 2, 4, 6, 7, 9, 12, 13, 14, 17, and 19; and others are not so praiseworthy—for example, Reason 16. In two cases it was clear that the pupil enrolled for a course because the school permitted only those taking regular work to take swimming.

Attention is also especially directed to the fact that in only thirty cases (7.1 per cent) was the pupil taking the course because he had failed in the same course previously. In eighty-three cases

(19.7 per cent) the pupil was taking the course to make up credit lost by failure in some other course. It is apparent, therefore, that 113 cases, or 27 per cent of the total, cover all failures. It is seen that Reason 1 alone more than balances all cases of failure.

TABLE I

REASONS GIVEN BY HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS FOR ATTENDING SUMMER SCHOOL

Reason	Number of Cases	Percentage of Cases
1. To complete the four years of high-school work in less than four years.....	116	27.6
2. To avoid falling behind class in total number of credits because of failure in some other course.....	83	19.7
3. To make use of time during summer although no credit is needed.....	57	13.6
4. To repeat work because of previous failure in the same subject.....	30	7.1
5. To earn more credits than are needed for graduation from high school.....	20	4.8
6. To take required work previously omitted.....	20	4.8
7. To make up work missed because of sickness or absence for some other reason.....	15	3.6
8. To find out whether or not the subject will be liked.....	14	3.3
9. To take work necessary because of conflicts in schedules, past or future.....	13	3.1
10. To take more of subject than is required.....	10	2.4
11. To review work.....	7	1.7
12. To prepare for nurses' examination.....	6	1.4
13. To complete college-entrance requirements.....	6	1.4
14. To make necessary adjustment in transferring from one curriculum to another.....	6	1.4
15. To avoid heavy schedule in Senior year.....	5	1.2
16. To become eligible for athletics.....	5	1.2
17. To prepare for teachers' examinations.....	3	0.7
18. To graduate with spring class, having begun high-school work in the second semester.....	2	0.5
19. To make necessary adjustment because of transferring from one school to another.....	2	0.5
Total.....	420	100.0

Table II shows the distribution of reasons by fields of instruction. This table is read as follows: Reason 1 was given in three, or 16 per cent, of the nineteen cases in which pupils were taking graphic and plastic art. Reason 1 was given in 53, or 39 per cent, of the 136 cases involving English. Only a few of the interesting points brought out by the table will be discussed here as the table is self-explanatory. It will be noted that twenty-four, or 41 per cent, of the fifty-nine cases of subject enrolment in mathematics were due

TABLE II
DISTRIBUTION OF REASONS FOR ATTENDING SUMMER SCHOOL BY FIELDS OF INSTRUCTION

REASON	ART		ENGLISH		FOREIGN LANGUAGES		MATHEMATICS		NATURAL SCIENCE		SOCIAL STUDIES		TYPEWRITING		TOTAL	
	Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber	Per Cent
1.....	3	16	53	39	0	0	8	14	8	27	43	41	1	5	116	27.6
2.....	8	42	34	25	0	0	11	19	9	30	29	27	0	0	83	19.7
3.....	0	0	5	4	26	52	2	3	1	3	3	3	12	60	57	13.6
4.....	0	0	1	1	0	0	24	41	1	3	4	4	0	0	30	7.1
5.....	1	5	6	4	4	8	1	2	2	7	3	3	3	15	20	4.8
6.....	0	0	8	6	0	0	2	3	4	13	6	6	0	0	20	4.8
7.....	0	0	4	3	0	0	2	3	2	7	5	5	0	0	15	3.6
8.....	0	0	0	0	14	28	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	14	3.3
9.....	0	0	6	4	1	2	1	2	1	3	3	3	1	5	13	3.1
10.....	6	32	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	2	10	10	2.4
11.....	0	0	1	1	3	6	1	2	0	0	1	1	1	5	7	1.7
12.....	0	0	5	4	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	1.4
13.....	0	0	4	3	0	0	0	0	1	3	2	2	0	0	6	1.4
14.....	0	0	2	1	0	0	1	2	0	0	2	2	0	0	5	1.2
15.....	0	0	2	1	0	0	1	2	0	0	1	1	0	0	5	1.2
16.....	0	0	2	1	2	4	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	3	0.7
17.....	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0.5
18.....	1	5	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0.5
19.....	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	2	0.5
Total.....	19	100	136	100	50	100	59	103	30	99	106	102	20	100	420	100.0

to previous failure in the same courses. In no other department represented is the percentage nearly as great; in fact, social studies comes next with only 4 cases (4 per cent) out of a total of 106. It would seem reasonable to infer that many of the cases in which the pupils were studying English and social studies because of Reason 2 were due to failure in mathematics. There were fifty-seven cases, or 13.6 per cent of the total, in which the pupil was taking the course because he wished to make use of his time during the summer although he did not need the credit. Many of these cases are found in art, in exploratory courses in the foreign languages, and in typewriting.

Some of the conclusions that may be drawn from the data presented are as follows:

1. Previous failure in the same course or in some other course is responsible for only 27 per cent of the cases of subject enrolment in this study.

2. At least as many pupils are taking summer-school work in order to become accelerated as are taking it because they have failed or are retarded.

3. Many pupils who fail during the regular year welcome the opportunity to repeat the work in summer school.

4. A significant number of pupils desire to make use of their time during the summer even without expecting credit.

5. Summer-school work eliminates a considerable number of difficulties resulting from failure, poor guidance, change in curriculum, conflict in schedules, entrance into high-school work in the second semester, transfer from one school to another, absence on account of sickness, and absence for other reasons.

6. Only in mathematics is the enrolment largely comprised of pupils who have failed in the same course previously. Mathematics teachers should bear this fact in mind and should organize their work accordingly.

7. Exploratory courses are especially appropriate for summer-school work.

8. The progressive school system can no longer ignore the demand for summer-school work at the high-school level.

A STUDY OF TEACHING LOADS IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN WISCONSIN

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The problem of what should constitute a fair teaching load in the junior high school is one that becomes pressing when the enrolment of a school increases at the rate of 10 per cent a year and when the number of rooms in the building remains constant. Obviously, the size of the classes may be increased, but the classrooms have a limited seating capacity. The problem becomes acute when the size of the classes causes the number of pupil hours a week to reach the point where one questions whether the number of periods a week should not be reduced to compensate for the increase in the size of the classes. With the emphasis on the number of individual children rather than on the number of classes each day, this step seems logical if the teacher is to have the time to teach and test individuals adequately.

The writer recognizes the fact that the validity of a practice cannot be established by the questionnaire method. Nevertheless, in the absence of scientific evidence as to what should constitute a fair teaching load, the questionnaire will at least indicate prevailing tendencies and permit a principal to compare procedures in his own school with those in other schools where conditions are comparable.

It was for this purpose that questionnaires were sent to the junior high school principals in Wisconsin in March, 1928. Replies were received from twenty-three schools in seventeen cities. These cities include nearly all the cities in which junior high schools have been established. The enrolments of the twenty-three schools range from 140 to 1,065. Seven of the smaller schools are obviously parts of six-year schools in which either most or all of the teachers teach part time in the junior high school grades or the pupils have part of their work each day under senior high school teachers. With these seven schools excluded from consideration, there remain six-

teen schools with from 310 to 1,065 pupils in twelve cities of nine thousand or more population. It is debatable whether several of the sixteen schools could be termed junior high schools. However, so far as the teaching load is concerned, it matters little whether the junior high school is a separate unit in the system or whether it is a part of a six-year unit so long as the teaching staff in the junior high school grades is distinct from that in the upper high-school

TABLE I

NUMBER OF PUPILS, NUMBER OF TEACHERS, NUMBER OF PUPILS PER TEACHER,
AND NUMBER AND LENGTH OF CLASS PERIODS IN
SIXTEEN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

School	Number of Pupils	Number of Teachers	Number of Pupils per Teacher	Number of Periods	Length of Periods in Minutes
1.....	1,065	51	21	6	55
2.....	837	26	32	6	52
3.....	830	39	21	8	42
4.....	825	25	33	6	55
5.....	820	28	29	7	45
6.....	711	30	24	6	60
7.....	649	21	31	7	45
8.....	637	30	21	6	45
9.....	625	29	22	6	55
10.....	620	31	20	6	55
11.....	507	23	22	6	55
12.....	500	23	22	6	60
13.....	444	20	22	6	55
14.....	430	19	23	6	52
15.....	425	22	19	7	55
16.....	310	18	17	5½	60
Total....	10,235	435	24

grades. Under these circumstances the teaching loads and the size of the classes are comparable, and it is with these factors alone that this study is concerned. Table I shows the enrolments of these schools, the number of teachers, the number of pupils per teacher, and the number and the length of the class periods.

It will be noted that there is a very great range in the number of pupils per teacher in these sixteen schools. The total range is from 17 to 33, and the interquartile range is from 20.8 to 24.5. The median is 22; the mean is 24. Twelve, or 75 per cent, of the schools have hour periods (52-60 minutes, net), and four, or 25 per cent, have three-quarter-hour periods (42-45 minutes, net). All but two of the

schools which have hour periods have six periods a day, one school having seven periods and one school having five class periods and a half-hour activity period. Of the four schools which have three-quarter-hour periods, two have seven periods; one has six periods; and one has eight periods.

In the determination of teaching load, the common method is to multiply the average number of pupils a day by the average number of periods a day. The product is the number of pupil hours a week. In the tables which deal with teaching load only the time spent in the classroom is included. No doubt from 20 to 25 per cent of the teachers have charge of study halls, and a much greater proportion supervise extra-class activities. Since it would be impossible to weight supervision of study halls and extra-class activities adequately, they are ignored.¹ A very small number of the teachers give part time to teaching and part time to library, dramatics, etc. These teachers and teachers in charge of special rooms, such as opportunity rooms, are also not included. Only those teachers are included in the study who appear to give all their time to departmental teaching in the particular buildings in which they are listed. As shown in Table I, four schools have three-quarter-hour periods. The pupil hours of the teachers in these schools were multiplied by .75 in order to make their loads comparable with those of the teachers in the twelve schools which have hour periods.

Table II shows the maximum, minimum, and average number of pupil hours of teachers of academic subjects and the standard deviation for each school. This table is to be read as follows: School 16 has a range in teaching load from 330 to 510 pupil hours, with an average of 469 and a standard deviation of 55. As in the range of the number of pupils per teacher, so in the range of the average number of pupil hours a week, the greatest is roughly twice the smallest. The range of the middle 50 per cent is from 593 to 735, and the median average load is 652 pupil hours a week.

School 16 has not only the smallest average teaching load but also the smallest range of load (from 330 to 510 pupil hours) and

In School 16, which has only five class periods and a daily thirty-minute activity period, the half-hour devoted to the activity period is included in the number of hours of teaching, and the same number of pupils is assumed as the average of the teachers' classes.

the smallest deviation (55). The maximum teaching load in seven of the schools is less than the average in four schools. The minimum teaching load in one school is more than the average in thirteen schools and more than the maximum in nine schools.

In Table III the average teaching loads are summarized for four academic departments and two practical-arts departments. This table is to be read as follows: The average teaching loads of teachers of

TABLE II

MAXIMUM, MINIMUM, AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF PUPIL HOURS A WEEK
OF 262 TEACHERS OF ACADEMIC SUBJECTS IN SIXTEEN SCHOOLS
AND THE STANDARD DEVIATION FOR EACH SCHOOL

School	Minimum Number of Pupil Hours	Maximum Number of Pupil Hours	Average Number of Pupil Hours	Standard Deviation
16.....	330	510	469	55
1.....	344	760	578	114
8.....	440	680	582	94
10.....	404	700	593	85
3.....	404	780	593	139
15.....	520	700	601	70
9.....	416	705	614	74
11.....	560	740	640	69
14.....	416	785	663	113
12.....	480	815	680	81
6.....	528	805	695	109
13.....	492	840	700	139
5.....	456	1,102	770	204
7.....	481	1,062	825	174
4.....	540	950	889	90
2.....	790	1,120	949	94

English and languages range from 451 pupil hours in one school to 952 in another; the average loads of mathematics teachers range from 475 to 947 pupil hours; etc. It will be noted that in the academic departments the median average load for English teachers is 601 pupil hours; for mathematics teachers, 628; for teachers of the social studies, 654; and for science teachers, 645. In the practical-arts departments, the range is from 294 to 677 pupil hours. The median for manual arts is 517; for home economics, 489.

The size of the classes is closely related to the teaching load. Table IV summarizes the data with regard to the size of the classes under the following headings: largest classes, smallest classes, and

average classes. This table is to be read as follows: the largest English classes in the sixteen schools range in size from twenty-eight to

TABLE III
AVERAGE TEACHING LOADS SUMMARIZED BY DEPARTMENTS

AVERAGE TEACHING LOAD	ACADEMIC DEPARTMENTS					PRACTICAL-ARTS DEPARTMENTS	
	English and Languages	Mathematics	Social Studies	Science	Average	Manual Arts	Home Economics
Smallest	451	475	466	502	469	319	294
First quartile	548	597	562	591	593	436	437
Median	601	628	654	645	652	517	489
Third quartile	726	778	718	730	735	572	544
Largest	952	947	953	945	949	672	677
Number of teachers	84	68	69	41	262	43	26

TABLE IV
DATA WITH REGARD TO LARGEST, SMALLEST, AND AVERAGE CLASSES
IN EACH DEPARTMENT

	Smallest	First Quartile	Median	Third Quartile	Largest
English:					
Largest classes	28	34.5	37.8	38.5	44
Smallest classes	10	15.2	18.0	20.5	32
Average classes	24	25.5	27.5	31.5	37
Mathematics:					
Largest classes	31	34.0	36.5	40.5	48
Smallest classes	11	15.5	18.3	22.0	31
Average classes	22	24.5	26.5	30.5	36
Social studies:					
Largest classes	31	34.0	36.5	42.5	60
Smallest classes	10	15.5	18.3	23.5	31
Average classes	24	26.0	28.2	32.5	37
Science:					
Largest classes	30	32.8	34.9	36.5	56
Smallest classes	13	18.5	23.5	25.2	29
Average classes	24	26.6	30.2	30.6	33
Manual arts:					
Largest classes	20	24.0	25.7	27.5	40
Smallest classes	8	12.6	13.4	15.3	19
Average classes	17	19.7	21.0	23.0	28
Home economics:					
Largest classes	17	20.0	26.7	29.3	33
Smallest classes	10	12.0	13.0	18.3	19
Average classes	14	17.3	20.0	22.2	25

forty-four pupils; the smallest English classes, from ten to thirty-two pupils; and the average classes, from twenty-four to thirty-seven pupils. As would be expected, the total range in size of class

in the four academic departments is very great—from ten to sixty. The interquartile ranges in the average classes show very slight differences. The median average classes range from 26.5 in mathematics to 30.2 in science. In the practical arts the total range is from eight to forty; the range for the average classes in the various schools is from fourteen to twenty-eight; the interquartile range for the average classes is from 19.7 to 23.0 in manual arts and from 17.3 to 22.2 in home economics. The median for manual arts is 21; for home economics, 20.

Generally speaking, where there is more than one school reporting in any particular city, the average teaching loads in the several schools do not vary to any great extent. Thus, Schools 3 and 4 are in the same city, as are Schools 5 and 7. Schools 9, 10, and 11 are also in the same city and have nearly the same averages. The four schools having the largest loads are in two of the largest cities in the state. If these four schools and School 16, the smallest school included in this study, were excluded, the eleven remaining schools in nine cities would show a standard deviation of only 44.2 in average load, the range in number of pupils per teacher being from nineteen to twenty-four and the range in average number of pupil hours in academic subjects being from 578 to 700.

The principals were asked the following question: "What do you think should be the maximum size of class?" Four principals said 25; six, 30; seven, 35; and four, 40. Seven principals said that a teacher should meet not more than 125 pupils a day; eight said 150; and five, 175. In reply to the question whether I.Q.'s are used as a basis of classification of pupils, fourteen principals said, "Yes," and two said, "No." Eleven principals said that their bright classes are larger than their dull classes; two reported that there is no difference in the size of their classes; three principals did not report. Nine principals reported that they make a conscious effort to have their seventh-grade classes the smallest; one makes the eighth-grade classes the smallest; and six make the ninth-grade classes the smallest.

THE VOLUNTARY AND INDEPENDENT USE OF REFERENCE BOOKS IN THE WHEELING HIGH SCHOOL

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Instruction in the use of books and libraries in American public schools is comparatively new. Up to last year library instruction in the Independent School District of Wheeling, West Virginia, was not formal or systematized. In the elementary grades the pupil almost accidentally discovered that some books, though bulky and formidable in appearance, could become his staunch friends, and the dictionaries and encyclopedias were his chief bulwarks until he reached the high school. In the high school, without systematized instruction, he probably became acquainted with various other reference books, but again his knowledge of such books was largely a matter of chance. This condition is obviously far from satisfactory. It was therefore decided that, beginning with 1928, instruction in the use of the reference library should become part of the English course in the high school. A new reference library of 1,100 volumes, adjoining the study hall, was installed to supplement the public and school library across the street from the school and to encourage the pupils to approach library work in a more scholarly fashion.

As a diagnostic measure preliminary to the library instruction, it was thought wise to secure data concerning the pupils' use of reference books when they were not specifically told to use them. Consequently, the 841 pupils in the school were asked to answer the following questions.

1. Do you use reference books in the preparation of your lessons if the teacher does not require it?
2. If you do, (a) for what subjects do you use reference books? (b) What books do you use? (c) Where do you find them? (d) How much time do you spend a week in this way?
3. Do you think you understand the use of reference books?

The pupils who replied to this questionnaire had never received what modern educators consider adequate instruction in the use of reference books and for the most part had had access only to dictionaries and encyclopedias in their school building. There were several small libraries in the classrooms, but, with the exception of the library of the science department, these libraries were incomplete. Both of these conditions—lack of adequate instruction in the use of reference books and limited reference material—may be con-

TABLE I
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS IN EACH CLASS WHO USED
REFERENCE BOOKS

	FRESHMEN		SOPHOMORES		JUNIORS		SENIORS		ALL PUPILS	
	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent
Number of pupils who did not use reference books:										
Boys.....	47	46	29	30	12	21	8	20	96	32
Girls.....	25	26	11	16	14	15	12	17	62	19
Number of pupils who used reference books:										
Boys.....	56	54	69	70	46	79	33	80	204	68
Girls.....	72	74	57	84	78	85	58	83	265	81
Number of pupils replying:										
Boys.....	103	52	98	59	58	39	41	37	300	48
Girls.....	97	48	68	41	92	61	70	63	327	52

sidered handicaps, but only 158 of the 627 pupils who replied to the questionnaire said that they did not refer to outside material when they were not required to do so by the instructor; 469 asserted that they voluntarily used reference books.

Table I shows the extent to which reference books were used by the 627 pupils who replied. With one exception in the case of the girls, the percentage of both boys and girls who did not use reference books decreases steadily from the Freshman year to the Senior year. The percentage of boys and girls who used reference books independently increases steadily from the Freshman year to the Senior year with one exception in the case of the girls. The girls lead in the use of reference books. Whether they are more

conscientious or whether the feminine trait of curiosity is the explanation the data do not show.

Table II shows the subjects for which the voluntary reference work was done. Since all the pupils were studying English composition, English and American literature, and history and since these subjects are full of what seem to be strange, obscure statements and demand many outside papers, it is not surprising to find that they are the subjects for which the greatest number of pupils sought help. Every subject taught in the school was mentioned at some

TABLE II
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS IN EACH CLASS WHO USED REFERENCE BOOKS FOR EACH OF SEVERAL SUBJECTS

SUBJECT	FRESHMEN		SOPHOMORES		JUNIORS		SENIORS		ALL PUPILS	
	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent
Literature.....	6	5	4	3	58	47	80	88	142	30
History.....	104	81	15	12	12	10	43	47	76	16
English.....	2	2	101	80	24	19	19	21	248	53
Public speaking.....	2	2	8	6	7	6	7	8	17	4
Chemistry.....	4	3	20	16	11	9	11	12	22	5
Geography.....	4	3	10	8	6	5	1	1	35	7
Economics.....	2	2	6	5	7	6	7	12	3	
Biology.....	24	19	19	15	8	6	7	34	7	
General science.....	13	10	2	2	14	15	29	6		
Community civics.....	37	29	14	11	10	8	7	67	14	
Latin.....										

time, including shorthand, electricity, journalism, mathematics, and music.

Table III shows the reference books most frequently used. The dictionary, the encyclopedia, and *Who's Who in America* were used most frequently. Besides the reference books mentioned in the table there were occasional records of such books as *The Yale Chronicles of America*, all kinds of books of facts, *The World Almanac*, *The Harvard Classics*, state surveys, newspapers, and magazines.

Table IV is especially interesting since it shows where the pupils work when no one is supervising their study. Sixty-four per cent of the pupils did some reference work at home, which probably means, among other things, that every good American home has a dictionary. Some amazing data were given as to the length of time spent

in reference work, which varies from "fifteen minutes weekly" to "at least ten hours a week and sometimes more."

TABLE III

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS IN EACH CLASS WHO CONSULTED EACH OF SEVERAL REFERENCE BOOKS

REFERENCE BOOK	FRESHMEN		SOPHOMORES		JUNIORS		SENIORS		ALL PUPILS	
	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent
Dictionary.....	95	74	89	71	106	85	80	88	370	79
Encyclopedia.....	64	50	55	44	62	50	60	66	241	51
Who's Who in America	25	20	43	34	52	42	20	22	140	30
The Book of Knowledge	2	2	9	7	8	6	10	11	29	6
The Standard Dictio- nary of Facts.....	3	2	8	6	12	10	2	2	25	5
Atlas.....	3	2	4	3	6	5	5	5	18	4
The World Book.....	5	4	5	4	6	5	3	3	19	4
The Wonder Book.....			2	2	1	1	1	1	4	1
Latin and Greek myths					3	2			3	1
General reference book	2	2			4	3	17	19	23	5

TABLE IV

DATA WITH REGARD TO THE PLACE OF USE OF REFERENCE BOOKS AND THE AMOUNT OF TIME EACH WEEK DEVOTED TO REFERENCE WORK

	FRESHMEN		SOPHOMORES		JUNIORS		SENIORS		ALL PUPILS	
	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent
Place:										
Library.....	68	53	67	53	73	59	58	64	266	57
Study hall.....	57	45	70	56	44	35	61	67	232	49
Home.....	87	68	83	66	75	60	56	62	301	64
Classrooms.....					8	6	16	18	24	5
Time:										
15-60 minutes.....	86	67	64	51	65	52	57	63	272	58
1-2 hours.....	42	33	53	42	54	44	23	25	172	37
2-4 hours.....	0	0	7	6	4	3	10	11	21	4
More than 4 hours..	0	0	2	2	1	1	1	1	4	1

Table V shows the answers to the question: "Do you think you understand the use of reference books?" Eighty-two per cent of the pupils were certain that they did; and their answers must be accepted since there were no specifications as to what constitutes understanding.

The most apparent facts gained from the study here reported are that pupils consciously have a need for reference work, that they use reference books whether or not their teachers instruct them to

TABLE V

SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO QUESTION: "DO YOU THINK YOU UNDERSTAND THE USE OF REFERENCE BOOKS?"

REPLY	FRESHMEN		SOPHOMORES		JUNIORS		SENIORS		ALL PUPILS	
	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent
Yes.....	112	88	92	73	98	79	83	91	385	82
No.....	16	12	34	27	26	21	7	8	83	18
Fairly well.....	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0

do so, that they know some of the best and most common reference books, and that they use more reference books and use them to a greater extent as they grow older.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

Study methods at the junior-college level.—It is more the business of students to learn to work efficiently than to learn the subject matter of the school studies. Too many men and women work clumsily. One of the first men to call attention to the need of training children in methods of study was Frank M. McMurry, whose epoch-making book *How To Study* appeared in 1909. Since that time scores of articles and books on study procedures have appeared in the educational literature. However, it is only within the past three years that the attention of workers in this field has been turned to the senior high school and junior-college level.

In the summer of 1926 Crawford published a textbook, *Methods of Study*, for use in college classes. This book was the outgrowth of an investigation started in 1919 under the direction of Charters. The technique used was that of "collecting unrecorded specifics." The steps were as follows:

(1) A complete list of difficulties confronting students was first made. (2) Methods of overcoming these difficulties were collected by interviewing college professors and by having students submit their methods in writing. About three score professors were interviewed, and several hundred students made detailed reports as to their methods of work. (3) These specific ways of overcoming specific difficulties were classified into major divisions, in outline form, so that all the ways of overcoming each difficulty could be examined and compared at once. (4) The various methods were evaluated in the light of scientific research wherever this was possible and in other cases simply by the application of the author's own judgment and the judgments of persons who submitted the methods [p. vi].

After the publication of *Methods of Study* Crawford assembled additional material and then completely revised the book. The new book has a new title¹ and is published by another press.

The author's idea of a book on methods is illustrated by the paragraph headings, all of which are stated in the form of rules. In other words, the student is told *how* rather than *why*. These paragraph headings or rules are

¹ Claude C. Crawford, *The Technique of Study*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1928. Pp. viii+354. \$2.00.

numbered in sequence through each chapter. Hence, if the reader were to copy the subtitles one after another, he would have a numbered list of rules for guidance in the development of study habits.

This plan of numbering each paragraph reminds the reviewer of certain engineering textbooks with which he is familiar. Such an arrangement has the advantage of facilitating reference to any part of a chapter or part of the book. There is danger, however, that each paragraph will be considered as important as any other. The high spots in the chapter are thus submerged unless the continuity of the chapter has been carefully worked out apart from the paragraph headings.

The content of the book has been classified under fifteen chapters: "Selecting Courses," "Taking Notes," "Listening to Lectures," "Using Textbooks," "Acquiring Skill," "Memorizing," "Thinking," "Developing Interest," "Building a Vocabulary," "Using the Library," "Preparing Papers," "Reviewing," "Taking Tests," "Working in the Laboratory," and "Teaching Study Habits." Each chapter discusses from eighteen to thirty-eight rules for study and includes a series of questions and exercises, a matching test, a true-false test, a short-answer test based on the content of the chapter, and an annotated bibliography.

The following excerpt from chapter vii, "Thinking," will serve to illustrate the author's style of writing as well as the way in which he handles his rules for study.

4. *Obtain an abundant supply of material with which to think.* Thinking does not take place in a mental vacuum. You must have some facts or information with which to work. If you are to become a good thinker, you must first acquire a rich and varied fund of experience and accumulate a large body of facts. The material for thought may be compared to that used in building construction. The contractor requires brick, mortar, lumber, nails, and such things; without them all his technical ability would be useless. The mere possession of information, however, is not enough to produce a good thinker. A knowledge of medicine does not qualify you for thinking in the field of law; nor does a knowledge of geometry theorems enable you to solve any of the political problems that confront the nation. Quite often some man of prominence makes himself ridiculous by expressing his opinions on matters of which he really knows nothing. Your knowledge must be associated and organized if it is to serve you well in thinking. You must not only have ideas but have them in a usable form. Nor should all your material for thinking be stored in the memory. It will usually be necessary to hunt up new material having a bearing on any problem of importance that confronts you [p. 133].

This paragraph is characteristic of the forcefulness and simplicity with which the book is written. The convictions of the author are carried direct to the reader. For this reason the book should be very effective in telling students how to study. The book does not pose as the last word on methods of study; it does, however, cover a wide range of sound experience and should serve well

that large mass of students who come through the elementary school and the junior high school with but few efficient habits of work.

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F. DEAN MCCLUSKY

Extra-classroom activities in the public schools.—An encouraging sign in extra-classroom activities during the last few years is the effort to analyze critically such activities in their relation to acceptable goals in education and the methods of attaining these goals. A recent book¹ approaches the problem of the direction of extra-classroom activities from the point of view of the unity of the entire program from the elementary school through the senior high school. "For many years, anything like consideration of extra-classroom activities was supposed to be confined to the four-year high school" (p. 9).

The book contains fifteen chapters. Certain principles basic to the organization of a program of extra-classroom activities are proposed in the first chapter. In chapters ii and iii a classification of extra-classroom activities and suggestions relative to securing adequate sponsorship from the teaching staff are considered. Chapters iv-xiv treat the different types of extra-classroom activities in a manner familiar to the readers of the recent literature on the subject except for the emphasis placed on the necessity of unity in the program for all the grades in a public-school system. The problem of the extent of participation by pupils is constructively attacked in the final chapter.

The chapters "Entertainments and Dramatics" and "Athletics" show better than do the other chapters on types of activities how unified programs may be organized. The author begins with the simple entertainments and dramatic activities best suited to the needs of the elementary school; for the junior and senior high schools more elaborate activities are suggested. The definition of "success" in an athletic program and the ten objectives of a successful system of athletics are especially stimulating in the light of the evils still evident in interscholastic athletics.

The style of the book is simple and direct. The reader is not fatigued with burdensome tables while attempting to secure practical suggestions. As a source book in the field of extra-classroom activities, the book is limited. The distinctive feature of the book is the emphasis on a continuing program of extra-classroom activities for all the units of a public-school system. Busy superintendents will find the book helpful.

W. W. HAGGARD

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¹ Riverda Harding Jordan, *Extra-Classroom Activities in Elementary and Secondary Schools*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1928. Pp. x+302. \$2.50.

Views on the teaching of English.—Books on the teaching of English are not numerous. Such as there are have been written primarily for the purpose of setting forth devices for teaching grammar, composition, the novel, the lyric, and other literary types. They have abounded in formulas and lesson plans of more or less value. In the technical language of the profession, they have advanced various theories of education. What most of these books have lacked has been the presentation of a clear conception of the values of English-teaching and of what distinguishes English from other subjects in the curriculum. The profession has been slow to recognize that the teaching of English must be governed by motives different from those that govern the teaching of other subjects, that the measures of achievement in English are entirely different from those in other departments of the school. Not many of the books on methods of teaching have probed into this vital feature of school work. The result has been that English-teaching largely remains a passing-on of accumulated facts, and the test of a pupil's achievement is the retention of a mass of unassimilated information. Until English teachers possess something in the nature of a philosophy regarding the values of their subject, English-teaching will remain a task rather than a profession of dignity.

A book¹ by Professor Sidney Cox, of Dartmouth College, offers one of the most searching and discerning examinations of the values of English-teaching yet made. The author is not a teacher of methods but a teacher of English. He employs none of the technical language of the profession, in which some specialists place too great a faith and behind which many incompetent persons take refuge. The author professes little faith in ready-made formulas and prepared lesson plans. In place of the customary analyses and discussion of techniques, he presents in a style that is remarkable for its simplicity and informality his conception of the opportunities which English-teaching offers. The subtitle of Professor Cox's book, "Avowals and Ventures," points more explicitly to his purpose. He records a few of his own ventures in the classroom as well as his convictions, drawn from years of teaching experience. It is the sanity of the latter which makes the work particularly valuable.

Professor Cox has realized that the teacher who makes his task merely that of passing on facts of literary history, criticism, rhetoric, and rules of grammar or prosody is not an English teacher at all but a teacher of history or philology. This is the precise respect in which English differs from other subjects. In place of a body of unquestioned standards, it offers the privilege of developing attitudes toward art and conduct. So long as literature is a by-product in a class in literary history, teachers will fail properly to conceive one aim of their work.

Two or three of the author's "avowals" stand out most forcibly. The intensely personal nature of English offers an opportunity for a close personal relation between teacher and pupils not characteristic of most subjects. Eng-

¹ Sidney Cox, *The Teaching of English: Avowals and Ventures*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1928. Pp. 172. \$1.50.

lish-teaching, therefore, is a means of thinking and feeling with the pupils. How significant this is will perhaps be appreciated only by those teachers who genuinely seek to encourage an admiration for literature and have discovered that only through a sharing of thought and feeling and enthusiasm can success be achieved.

Again, English-teaching affords an opportunity for unbinding emotions. The relation of the teaching of English, particularly literature, to the expansion of emotions has been sadly neglected by students of education. Only music, dancing, and sports, the author suggests, share this value with English. To these, art might also be added. Literature reaches the lives of most pupils. By the very nature of its content, literature offers opportunities for release of the emotions. Teaching literature so that pupils feel joy with one character and grief with another and so that delight replaces the "feigned enjoyment of works of art in spite of emotional indifference" (p. 23) is a rare occurrence but a vital need. The classroom conditions through which the desired reactions on the part of pupils are obtained are among the wisest of Professor Cox's suggestions. An air of informality must prevail in the classroom, the pupils being free to express their emotional reactions through their laughter, their gasps, or their wriggling. Such conditions are not to be confused with lax discipline. Good English-teaching makes and enforces a standard of discipline of its own.

It is not to be supposed that the unbinding of emotions is an encouragement of emotionalism. "Not to induce hysteria but to forestall it would be the intention" (p. 21), says the author. He adds, "An improvement in the teaching of English in the direction of emotional cultivation would, to infer from experience, result not only in fewer pedants, prudes, and mechanists but also in fewer neurotics" (p. 21).

English-teaching, furthermore, is offered as an antidote to loose thinking—a means of jarring false bottoms, the author calls it. A saner enumeration of the many irrelevant and negative conceptions of the purpose of English study entertained by both teachers and pupils is not to be found.

The last chapters of the book, grouped under the section heading "For Instance," are intimate accounts of the author's actual methods of teaching certain topics. They are not offered as novel or infallible devices. They constitute some of the author's own "ventures." Enlivened by his insight into his subject material, they are more valuable than any lesson plan could be. In writing his book, Professor Cox has offered his readers the privilege of sharing his experience and personality. That is the greatest opportunity which teachers of English in turn can bring to their classes. The teaching of English is dignified by the publication of such a book.

RUSSELL THOMAS

A new approach to social history.—An interesting and suggestive treatment of social history for use in a course in world-history has recently been prepared

by two English writers. Their book,¹ aptly titled *Home Life in History*, portrays in an evolutionary story the social and economic careers of eighteen imagined but quite typical inhabitants of historic Britain, the eighteen men being united in a genealogical table, a "family tree" beginning about 200 B.C. and coming down to 1926 A.D.

The first chapter of the book tells how "Doli of the Belgae" lived in druidic days; the second chapter tells how Varasius, descendant of Doli, was Romanized. Successive chapters present the life-stories of other men, bound to these first by ties of blood, nurtured by the events which have made English history. The last of the Romans is succeeded by a Danish conqueror; a Norman invader mingles his blood with that of the Dane; a feudal nobleman appears; a Renaissance man, a Puritan, and so on to a soldier of the World War. We are told, though in necessarily sketchy fashion, what these men and their families wore, what they ate, how they made their money and how they spent it, the kinds of houses they built and the house furnishings they chose—all in a manner enlivened with accurate imagination and integrated with threads of genealogical continuity.

The book is delightfully written, though at times somewhat beyond the grasp of the average high-school pupil. It has a number of very good illustrations and is excellent in general makeup. The Appendix contains selections of sources for social history not easily duplicated. Altogether, it is an excellent book to have on the shelves of the library both for the able pupil in history itself and for the pupil interested in historical literature. The book is unusual because of the way it tells its story as well as because of the story itself.

HOWARD E. WILSON

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A new textbook in high-school physics.—In the more recent textbooks in high-school physics one finds a decided tendency to multiply the number of chapters although the subject matter remains practically the same. This means that many of the topics included in any one of the natural divisions of physics are considered as complete in themselves.

In *Elements of Physics*² this tendency is exemplified to a marked degree, the usual twenty to twenty-five chapters of the older textbooks being here expanded to fifty-five chapters. Thirteen chapters are devoted to electricity, ten to heat, eight to light, and smaller numbers of chapters to the other divisions of the subject. The subject of heat, for example, is treated in the following chapters: "Heat," "Temperature," "Expansion of Solids," "Expansion of Liquids," "Expansion of Gases," "Measurement of Heat," "Fusion," "Vaporization," "Transfer of Heat," and "Heat and Work." The large number of chap-

¹ John Gloag and C. Thompson Walker, *Home Life in History: Social Life and Manners in Britain, 200 B.C.—A.D. 1926*. New York: Coward-McCann, Inc., 1928. Pp. 302. \$4.00.

² A. Wilmer Duff and Henry T. Weed, *Elements of Physics*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1928. Pp. x+566. \$2.20.

ters demands that many of them be extremely short; accordingly, there are to be found three chapters of but four pages each and six chapters of but five pages each. The longest chapter includes but twenty-two pages, the average chapter being approximately ten pages in length.

A second feature of the book may be expressed in the authors' words:

After each numbered paragraph there are a few questions by which the student may test his understanding of what he has read. Frequently one who has read a paragraph without being conscious of difficulty has, in reality, failed to grasp some essential point in the statement. An attempt to answer a few questions before proceeding conduces to sound progress. The habit of self-examination in reading, a valuable habit in later life, should be encouraged by all means available. Possibly these questions may also be of assistance to less-experienced instructors in physics [p. v].

At the end of each chapter are extensive lists of exercises and problems. These lists differ in form from those found in the usual textbook in that all the exercises occur in one list and the problems in a second list. The list of exercises is placed first, thus giving the pupil an opportunity to test himself qualitatively on his understanding of the principles of the chapter before proceeding to quantitative tests.

The attention given to recent progress in aviation and to television as a part of radio transmission will appeal to instructors as well as to pupils. Also, the discussion of radioactivity and discharge through gases will be of interest where time permits a study of these topics.

CLIFFORD HOLLEY

Training the research worker.—The large increase in the number of graduate students in education in the colleges and universities in the United States has forced upon the attention of those concerned with the training of these students the necessity of giving systematic instruction in the principles of research. As a result, numerous discussions of research in education have appeared in a variety of monographs, bulletins, and periodicals. A recent book¹ attempts "to bring together and to organize such contributions" (p. 5) into a "handbook of the literature of educational research" (p. 7).

Materials relating to the various aspects of educational research are gathered from a wide variety of sources and are organized around such topics as "Sources of Information," "Characteristics of Scientific Investigations," "Selecting and Defining a Problem for Investigation," "Technics Available for the Collection of Data," "The Organization and Interpretation of Data," and "Reporting Educational Research." Quotations, summaries of studies, and citations to articles are used freely to develop the various topics, and a large amount of material is brought together.

The book is somewhat disappointing, most of the disappointment growing out of certain dangers that characterize attempts to bring together material

¹ Carter V. Good, *How To Do Research in Education*. Baltimore: Warwick & York, Inc., 1928. Pp. 298. \$2.60.

from a variety of sources. For example, there is a great deal of educational literature the content of which is decidedly mediocre because it is based on fundamental assumptions which are in themselves erroneous. A most important phase of the training of the research worker consists, therefore, in preparing him to judge an article as to the soundness of the fundamental assumptions involved. This phase of the training in research has been but lightly considered in the book under discussion.

Furthermore, when one makes a collection of materials from various authors, it is necessary to unify the materials since they frequently represent different points of view. This unification has been only partly accomplished. In the chapter "Characteristics of Scientific Investigations," for example, the author begins by giving three quotations that describe educational research as critical, reflective thinking using the "best" data available. The chapter ends with the conclusion that "the chief characteristics and requirements of educational research may be summed up under the five points discussed in the preceding paragraphs: (1) mathematical precision, (2) objectivity, (3) verifiability, (4) impartiality, and (5) expertness" (p. 93). No attempt is made to reconcile this conclusion with the point of view expressed at the beginning of the chapter. A moment's consideration will show that in the case of many of the problems in education the "best" data are far from mathematically precise, are highly subjective, and are verifiable only with great difficulty and the conclusions formed as a result of critical, reflective thinking are expert to but a small degree. The author neglects this inconsistency. After working through the chapter, the reader still wonders just what educational research is, just what is meant by being scientific, whether or not all educational research is scientific, etc. The material has not been treated in a fundamental way.

Again, when one prepares a handbook of the writings on educational research, it is important to remember that some of the significant aspects of research have been only implicitly discussed in the literature. The author of the handbook must do one of two things. He must make the reader aware of the omission if he decides not to discuss such aspects, or he must make explicit what has been implied. Professor Good fails to do either with several significant issues. Thus, at the present time there are many research workers who are wondering how far the scientific method can go. In the curriculum field, for example, whole books are devoted to the implicit thesis that science does not and cannot *evaluate* human activities. Professor Good does not discuss this question.

Finally, the author has not given sufficient attention to the distinction between "what to do" and "how to do." "How To Do" is part of the title of the book. In the chapter "Interpretation of Data," for example, the student is referred to writings which tell him that the conclusions must be relevant to the problem, that they must be justified by the data studied, etc., but these writings do not give the student direct help in learning how to interpret data.

In spite of the foregoing criticisms, the reader will find much of value in

the book. A great deal of material has been brought together. In particular, the chapter "Sources of Information" is excellent.

R. H. OJEMANN

First-year Latin.—A recent Latin textbook¹ is stimulating. It is stimulating to the pupil in its illustrations. It contains a series of pictures that depict with unusual accuracy scenes from Roman life, that are suggestive as well as accurate, and that are not isolated phenomena but closely connected with the reading in Latin. The other illustrations, distinctive and well chosen, show actual Roman remains and are accompanied by simple but illuminating explanations. The book is stimulating to the pupil in its sections of simple English that initiate him into a very remote civilization and its mode of life. Any normal child will want to read more widely in English about Romans and their ways because of the interesting vistas opened up in these sections. The book is stimulating in its Latin, which is always a simple, connected, well-rounded story about some phase of ancient life or its legends. It is stimulating in its work on derivation, which does not leave the pupil with a mere list of English words to refer to the antecedent Latin words or a list of Latin words from which the largest possible list of English derivatives is to be compiled, but which takes a few English words and opens up their interesting history and then suggests another short list of words whose derivation offers an equally interesting quest.

The book is stimulating to the teacher, too. He is conscious that, while it contains an unusual wealth of varied material simply presented, it is not diffuse but well organized, clear cut, and scholarly. He is aware that the stories are soundly constructed for learning Latin, that their vocabulary is essential vocabulary, and that words are repeated far more frequently than usual. The simplicity in the presentation of syntax and in the emphasis of function over category is gratifying.

No really worth-while book deserves to be dismissed without mention of its less satisfactory features from the point of view of the reviewer. There is a general vocabulary of about seven hundred words, which is large in view of the large amount of English material presented. Abundant repetition of vocabulary minimizes this difficulty. Daily vocabularies appear in the open—a feature that discourages effort to read without reference to vocabulary. There is some provision for set composition and some busy work, though far less than usual. Much in form and syntax is deferred to the second year, as recommended by the report of the Classical Investigation. It is a question, however, whether the material presented could be covered easily by small schools with short terms.

The review copy of the book contains a page of tabulated claims for it that would label as outstanding any textbook that could fulfil their promise. In this case they are no idle assertions of perfection. The book is excellent.

MIMA MAXEY

¹ Ralph Van Deman Magoffin and Margaret Young Henry, *Latin—First Year*. Newark, New Jersey: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1928. Pp. xiv+392+xl.

Home decoration.—Study materials necessary for an understanding of the principles of interior decoration are distributed in books devoted to separate phases of the subject, magazines, pictures, museums, studios, and homes. The authors of a recent textbook¹ have gathered this material together in the form of a survey for the benefit of students and teachers. The book is intended for use in college classes or in advanced high-school classes. It seems questionable whether a book can serve students at two levels of intellectual development equally well. In this instance the textbook is better suited to college classes but might be used as a reference book in the high school.

The book begins with a discussion of design and color as applied to the decoration of a house. This is followed by several chapters on the main backgrounds and draperies of a room. A brief history of furniture is included to aid in the selection and combination of furniture for modern homes. Throughout the book the authors lead from an understanding of the fundamental principles of interior decoration to their practical application. Two of the last chapters consider the furnishing or redecorating of the entire home, thus bringing together in their proper relation the principles developed in the first section of the book. The last chapter offers worth-while advice to the student who wishes to become a professional interior decorator.

The chief purpose of the book is to aid students and teachers. The student will find the book clearly and interestingly written and attractively bound and printed. The illustrations are good, particularly the line drawings which emphasize the distinctive characteristics of design and furniture. The photographs and drawings are included for their teaching value and are linked with the discussion to emphasize the salient points. Comparatively few photographs of rooms are included, which is probably wise since they are soon out of date and popular magazines continually furnish new pictures. More colored illustrations would have clarified the chapters on the use of color in the home and would have been especially appreciated by those who read the book without the close supervision of an instructor. The organization of the book is intended to help young teachers in developing a course of study. Each chapter contains worth-while laboratory problems, which are included as a method of teaching the application of principles. The chapter "Suggestions to the Teacher" is particularly helpful in providing teaching devices and illustrative materials.

In addition to serving college students and teachers, the book should be of interest to the home-maker who is faced with problems of furnishing and decorating. Articles by the authors published in *Good Housekeeping*, *Country Life*, and *House and Garden* are incorporated in the book. The general style of the book will appeal to the woman who is a beginner in the study of the decoration of her home.

ALSIE M. STEVENSON

¹ Alice Jackson and Bettina Jackson, *The Study of Interior Decoration*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran & Co., Inc., 1928. Pp. xviii+488. \$2.50.

Home relationships.—For a number of years discussion has been going on in the field of home economics concerning the need of teaching something of family relationships. Textbook material covering this phase of home-making has been very limited, and such as has appeared has been planned for students at the college level. A pioneer textbook¹ designed for the junior high school presents the group of topics which were found applicable in the Denver public schools. The authors say in the Preface, "Various units have been tried out in other schools in different parts of the country" (p. iii).

By "units" is meant units of understanding, as discussed in connection with the science type of procedure in *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* by Henry C. Morrison. The unit titles are "What Are the Personal Responsibilities of Girls in Making Their Home and Family Life Successful?" "What Does It Cost To Finance the Home?" "How Can You Help Mother in Housekeeping in Your Home?" "What Must You Know in Order To Help with the Care of Younger Children in Your Home?" "What Must You Know in Order To Be Helpful When There Is Illness in Your Home?" "How Can You Help To Make Your Home Friendly, Hospitable, and Entertaining for Your Family and Guests?" "What Is Your Relationship and the Relationship of Your Home to the Community?" The direct method as described in *The Teaching of Ideals* by W. W. Charters is used in dealing with personality traits and habits. The book incorporates many common-sense ideas which have heretofore not been made a part of textbook material.

The style is simple, appealing, and direct. The vocabulary with the exception of some technical words and the sentence structure are such as might be used at the sixth-grade level. The book is dignified but girlish and possesses a sophistication which belongs to the adolescent. The illustrations are especially attractive.

It may be worth while to call the attention of those planning to use the book as a textbook to the reading difficulty which results from an almost excessive number of questions in the body of the text. To the teacher these questions will be a useful guide; they are undoubtedly a means of concentrating subject matter. Many questions are left as open and unsolved problems, while standards are prescribed as solutions for others.

The illustrations are, on the whole, one of the strong points of the book; however, certain inconsistencies exist. For example, the pet cat, which adds an element of interest, is allowed to appear with its paws on the kitchen sink in an illustration which teaches sanitation in the use of individual drinking cups. A child riding a broom enlivens but obscures the point in an illustration of cleaning closets. Since most children look at the illustrations first, it is highly important that these should be consistent and convey their ideas in simple, straightforward fashion.

¹ Kate W. Kinyon and L. Thomas Hopkins, *Junior Home Problems*. Chicago: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., 1928. Pp. x+214. \$1.00.

To those who need a textbook for junior high school pupils covering some of the family relationships this book will prove very valuable.

HAZEL SHULTZ

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

- BAMESBERGER, VELDA C. *An Appraisal of a Social Studies Course in Terms of Its Effect upon the Achievement, Activities, and Interests of Pupils*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 328. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. Pp. 92.
- BASSETT, SARAH JANET. *Retention of History in the Sixth, Seventh and Eighth Grades with Special Reference to the Factors That Influence Retention*. Johns Hopkins University Studies in Education, No. 12. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1928. Pp. viii+110. \$1.75.
- BENNETT, G. VERNON. *Vocational Education of Junior College Grade*. University Research Monographs, Number 6. Baltimore: Warwick & York, Inc., 1928. Pp. 244. \$2.75.
- BLACKBURN, JASON ALBERT. *A Study of the New Teacher Situation in Public Secondary Schools of Pennsylvania*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1928. Pp. 156.
- BOARDMAN, CHARLES W. *Professional Tests as Measures of Teaching Efficiency in High School*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 327. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. Pp. 86.
- EVERETT, JOHN PHELPS. *The Fundamental Skills of Algebra*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 324. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. Pp. vi+110.
- FISHER, JAMES EARNEST. *Democracy and Mission Education in Korea*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 306. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. Pp. xiv+188.
- FULLER, FLORENCE D. *Scientific Evaluation of Textbooks: An Experiment in Coöperative Evaluation of Junior High School Mathematics Texts*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1928. Pp. xvi+88. \$1.20.
- HSIA, JUI-CHING. *A Study of the Sociability of Elementary School Children*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 322. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. Pp. 64.
- JENSEN, ARNE SIGURD. *The Rural Schools of Norway*. Boston: Stratford Co., 1928. Pp. 280. \$2.50.
- KOOS, LEONARD V. *The Questionnaire in Education: A Critique and Manual*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1928. Pp. viii+178. \$1.25.
- LEE, BALDWIN. *Issues in the Social Studies*. Social Science Monographs, No. 3. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. Pp. viii+192.

- LEVINE, ALBERT J., and MARKS, LOUIS. *Testing Intelligence and Achievement*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1928. Pp. viii+400. \$2.00.
- MANGUN, VERNON LAMAR. *The American Normal School: Its Rise and Development in Massachusetts*. University Research Monographs, Number 3. Baltimore: Warwick & York, Inc., 1928. Pp. xvi+442. \$3.50.
- MEADER, J. L. *Normal School Education in Connecticut*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 307. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. Pp. vi+96.
- MORTON, ROBERT LEE. *Laboratory Exercises in Educational Statistics, with Tables*. Newark, New Jersey: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1928. Pp. viii+146+lii.
- RUSK, ROBERT R. *The Philosophical Bases of Education*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. Pp. 206. \$1.75.
- SLAY, RONALD J. *The Development of the Teaching of Agriculture in Mississippi with Special Emphasis on Agriculture as a Part of School Curricula*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 310. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. Pp. viii+194.
- SNEDDEN, DAVID. *Educational Sociology for Beginners*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1928. Pp. xiv+636. \$3.50.
- TROXEL, OLIVER LEONARD. *State Control of Secondary Education*. University Research Monographs, Number 4. Baltimore: Warwick & York, Inc., 1928. Pp. viii+232. \$2.50.
- WICKMAN, E. K. *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes*. New York: Commonwealth Fund (578 Madison Avenue), 1928. Pp. 248. \$2.00.

BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- BIRCH, C. E. *Fundamentals of Business Practice: Laboratory Material for Use in Junior Business Training Courses*. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1928.
- COWAN, HAROLD E., SHEA, MARGARET F., and MORIN, GEORGE A. *Commercial Law by Cases*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1928. Pp. vi+390.
- DAVIS, NETTIE STEWART. *Applied Arithmetic for Girls*. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1928. Pp. 126. \$0.88.
- DOWNING, ELLIOT R. *Elementary Eugenics*. A revision of *The Third and Fourth Generation*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1928. Pp. viii+138. \$1.75.
- ELDRIDGE, SEBA, and CLARK, CARROLL D. *Major Problems of Democracy: A Study of Social Conditions in the United States*. New York: Century Co., 1928. Pp. xvi+586. \$1.80.
- FOWLKES, JOHN GUY, KINGSBURY, HOWARD BAKER, WALLACE, RAYMOND RANDELL, and GOFF, THOMAS THEODORE. *Algebra Work-Book*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1928. Pp. 199. \$0.80.
- HAERTTER, LEONARD D. *Plane Geometry*. New York: Century Co., 1928. Pp. xii+328. \$1.36.

- KINYON, KATE W., and HOPKINS, L. THOMAS. *Junior Food and Clothing*. Chicago: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., 1928. Pp. xiv+264+138. \$1.60.
- OLLER, MARIE, and DAWLEY, ELOISE K. *Little Plays from Greek Myths*. New York: Century Co., 1928. Pp. xiv+176. \$0.84.
- WHITFIELD, RUTH M. *Handy Book of English Composition*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1928. Pp. xii+336.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION
AND OTHER MATERIAL IN PAMPHLET FORM

- CARMICHAEL, ALBERT MAXWELL. *Moral Situations of Six-Year Old Children as a Basis for Curriculum Construction*. University of Iowa Studies in Education, Volume IV, Number 6. Iowa City, Iowa: University of Iowa, 1927. \$1.00.
- List of Books Approved for Public School Libraries in the State of Virginia*. Supplement No. 4. State Board of Education Bulletin, Vol. XI, No. 1. Richmond, Virginia: State Board of Education, 1928. Pp. 264.
- Parents' Questions: My Child Will; My Child Won't—What Shall I Do?* New York: Child Study Association of America (54 West 74th Street), 1928. \$0.25.
- QUILLARD, MARGARET J. *Child Study Discussion Records: Development, Method, Techniques*. New York: Child Study Association of America (54 West 74th Street), 1928. Pp. 74. \$0.75.
- Rational Objective Tests in Bookkeeping and Accounting*. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1928.
- Recent issues of the Bureau of Education:
- Bulletin No. 13, 1928—*Major Trends of Education in Other Countries* by James F. Abel.
- Bulletin No. 17, 1928—*Bulletins of the Bureau of Education, 1906-1927, with Index by Author, Title and Subject* by Edith A. Wright and Mary S. Phillips.
- SAVAGE, HOWARD J., and COGSWELL, EDMUND S. *A Retirement Plan for Colorado Public Schools*. Bulletin Number Twenty-two. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1928. Pp. x+72.
- A Selected List of Books for Parents and Teachers*. New York: Child Study Association of America (54 West 74th Street), 1928 (revised). Pp. 78. \$0.25.
- Twelfth Annual Report to Congress of the Federal Board for Vocational Education*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1928. Pp. x+70.

MISCELLANEOUS PUBLICATIONS

- The New Human Interest Library: Volume I: *The Child and His World*, pp. xii+398. Volume II: *Stories of Science*, pp. x+520. Volume III: *Great Industries*, pp. x+396. Volume IV: *Our Country in Romance*, pp. x+396. Volume V: *Around the World*, pp. x+416. Volume VI: *Leaders of All Times*, pp. x+438. Chicago: Midland Press, 1928.

